

SOCIAL EDUCATION

CONTENTS

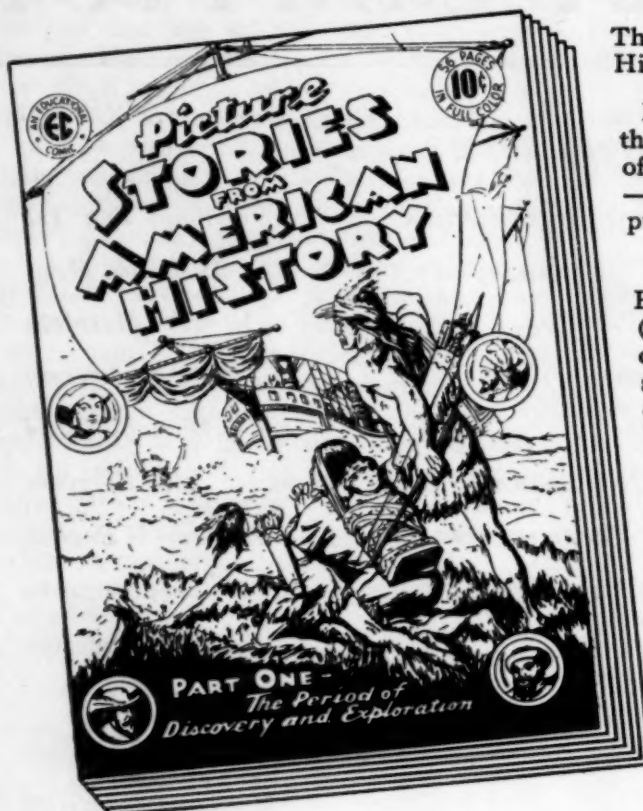
EDITOR'S PAGE: THE TASK OF INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION	<i>William Van Til</i>	341
PEACE TASKS OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS	<i>Erling M. Hunt</i>	344
SECONDARY SCHOOL SOCIAL STUDIES IN 1945	<i>Dorothy Merideth</i>	345
TRENDS IN THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT	<i>Ben A. Arneson</i>	350
THE GERMAN PROBLEM CAN BE SIMPLE	<i>René Albrecht-Carrié</i>	355
AN EDUCATION FOR PEACE: A MODEL UNITED NATIONS' PEACE CONFERENCE	<i>Adda Bozeman</i>	359
MISSOURI SCHOOLS AND MISSOURI'S NEW CONSTITUTION	<i>W. Francis English</i>	361
THE LAW AGAINST DISCRIMINATION AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES	<i>William Nosofsky</i>	364
AMERICAN COLONISTS—1945	<i>Vivienne Anderson</i>	366
NOTES AND NEWS		368
PAMPHLETS AND GOVERNMENT PUBLICATIONS	<i>Leonard B. Irwin</i>	371
SIGHT AND SOUND IN SOCIAL STUDIES	<i>William H. Hartley</i>	373
BOOK REVIEWS		376
PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED		383
INDEX TO VOLUME IX		384

SOCIAL EDUCATION is indexed in EDUCATION INDEX

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Editor's Page

THE TASK OF INTERCULTURAL EDUCATION

THE world has been shocked and scarred by a global war. The people of the United States have suffered less privation than have many other peoples, but Americans share the horror and grief that accompany suffering and destruction. We too share the compelling hope that a new world of understanding and unity will emerge with permanent stability.

We realize, as the world stands at the threshold of a new age, that bigotry, intolerance, and group hatreds flourish menacingly at home. Tensions and conflicts are many during this decade of American history when unity and understanding are most needed, needed at home for the achievement of security and employment, needed abroad for belief in American integrity. The war and its aftermath accentuate our group tensions. In wartime, populations tore up their stakes and set them down again in war-boomed communities. The cultural patterns of newcomers clashed with customs and mores of old residents and indeed with other in-migrants. Housing facilities were at a premium. Segregated minorities crowded into areas already bursting at the seams. At times minority group members spilled beyond former dividing lines and met violence. Moral standards and taboos were shaken. All hands were needed in industry; majority groups resisted the employment of newcomers and minority groups pressed for greater gains in their struggle for equal opportunity.

This editorial is adapted from the first chapter of the Sixteenth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies, *Democratic Human Relations: Promising Practices in Intergroup and Intercultural Education in the Social Studies*. The Yearbook is now in press. The basic draft for the full chapter, which also includes attention to specific programs and program possibilities, was prepared by William Van Til and H. H. Giles.

With the war boom ended, the shadow of economic insecurity stalks the land. Men struggle for jobs; the veterans of the war are added to the labor pool. Minorities are unwilling to accept placidly their former roles of people treated as inferiors. Returned soldiers bring home with them conflicting reactions to groups other than their own. Contacts with other nationalities and races made during the war frequently result in mutual respect, but sometimes deepen prejudices already formed.

As these various interests clash, the fervor of patriotic emotion, that did hold together many individuals and groups during the war, begins to slacken. The aftermath of war offers simultaneously high opportunity and grave danger. The opportunity is that now is the psychological time to harness tensed emotions into a great forward movement for democracy. The danger is that the frustrations and fears of humanity will eventuate in violence and scapegoating.

THE ROOTS OF INTOLERANCE

THE dangers must not be underestimated. Intolerance, bigotry, and group hatreds have deep roots. Some roots reach down into history. Migratory tribes of early mankind, as well as twentieth century Nazis, have boasted of their superiority over the rest of humankind. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries Catholics and Protestants have assaulted each other with fratricidal fury in Wars of Religion; nineteenth century American history is stained by undeclared religious wars conducted by mobs. The young United States bears deep scars of conflict related to race—a civil war, a tragic era of reconstruction, enforced segregation, urban rioting. From the birth of the nation to the present day there have been bigots who have despised some religions, races, nationalities, classes.

Some roots are embedded in human personality. Frustration frequently breeds aggression; the blocked or harried man may strike out in ways which are varied and unpredictable. The

confused person may substitute a stereotype for thought; it is easier to explain the complexities of human behavior by saying that all Italians are criminals than to attempt to explain Rocco Farrone in terms of his particular background and characteristics. Misfortune leads to scapegoating; Germany's defeat of 1918 was explained by the actions of the Jew, a convenient target for blame.

Some roots are embedded in social-economic organization. Restriction of membership in a union to whites or in a profession to Christians may sound like good economy to one accustomed to the selfish economy of scarcity. In a competitive economy, it may pay short-term dividends to harm a competitor through name-calling or to buy his property dirt cheap after forcing his wartime migration. In a depressed society, unhappy men seeking an emotional vent may be manipulated by demagogues who prosper through capitalizing on ancient European antagonisms or latent religious bigotry.

Rank weeds grow from such roots. Race riots, pogroms, and masked riders represent particularly noxious growths. But far more luxuriant are the commoner varieties—discrimination in employment, whispers over teacups and work benches and lunch tables, loose generalizations, social snobbery, mistrust, obstacles to the use of the ballot, "gentlemen's agreements" on real-estate deals, quota systems.

INTOLERANCE AND THE SCHOOLS

THE weed crop of social antagonisms invades our schools. Occasionally group hatred takes the form of violence in corridors, after-school mobbings, "getting" a player who does not belong. Subtler growths include the slur directed toward the Polish-American girl, inclusion of Negroes in some extra-curricular activities and pointed exclusion from others, organized discrimination by sororities and fraternities, the attitudes of cliques in lunchrooms. Some school officials inherit careful districting or accept the herding of minorities into segregated schools where, it is unctuously claimed, the children will feel happy and more at home in the most delapidated buildings of the system. Administrators occasionally use districts to which minorities have migrated as Siberias for the exile of dissident teachers. Teachers may act upon prejudices or react to individual students in accordance with group stereotypes. Students may be guided into vocational curricula deemed appropriate for all of dark skin color, and guided away from

general education or curricular opportunities for preparation for skilled work.

A cheering contrast to this picture is found in the great number of educators who are democratic-minded Americans. They are concerned with the elimination of all ugly growths. But, like sensible gardeners everywhere, they do not regard weed elimination as an end in itself. They recognize that the weeds of hatred must be eliminated so that the cultivation of democratic human relationships may successfully take place. Reasonable educators know well enough that education alone cannot change undesirable patterns of group relationships in the United States. They are well aware that social action, legislation, and economic change are needed too. But sound educators realize that education can help to develop human beings whose influence will be aligned beside other forces working for good human relationships.

Such educators treat people as individuals. These are the people who conceive the school as a microcosm in which to develop sharing in policy-making, joint planning, and desirable social organization for good citizenship. They encourage enterprises in which students of a variety of backgrounds become better acquainted. They foster a two-way passage between school and community. They recognize that guidance involves the attitudes of majority group members more than attitudes of members of the minorities. They work for self-understanding on the part of the young. As they teach history, they lose no opportunity to deal with the contributions of individuals of diverse backgrounds to the progress of humanity. In economics they deal with the economic bases of discrimination. In problems of democracy they include scientific study of race, of prejudice, of propaganda and public opinion, of psychology. Some of their special units deal with cultural relationships, sometimes through study of comparative religion or of housing problems, or of the experiences of a particular ethnic group. In every field of study and activity they lose no opportunity to develop good human relations. Continuously, they help students to see that the democratic way of life must be lived in daily incidents if it is to be real. School men and women who use these techniques are engaged in intercultural education.

Educators recognize that ranged on the side of intercultural education are: (1) the democratic way of life, (2) the religious tradition of Western culture, and (3) the findings of scientific inquiry.

THE WEAPON OF DEMOCRACY

DEMOCRACY is the major commitment of the American people. The democratic creed includes respect for individual personality, working together for common purpose, and the use of the method of intelligence. If we respect individual personality, we cannot refuse a man a teaching position because his religion is Catholic, Jewish, or Protestant. If we believe in working together for common purposes, we cannot sanction slum housing for newcomers to America, for racial groups, for so-called lower-class people. Nor can we refuse a man a ballot to share in making governmental policies while we conscript him for the armed forces. If we prize the method of intelligence, we cannot "think with our blood," Nazi-style, hate whole populations of ethnic backgrounds different from our own, post signs reading "Christians only." Social castes are no part of the American dream. There is simply no way of reconciling democratic living and discriminatory practices.

RELIGIOUS AND SCIENTIFIC TRADITIONS

A SECOND big idea which enlists the allegiance of great numbers of Americans is the religious tradition of Western culture. Here again we have an ideology ranged on the side of decent human relationships. Catholics, Protestants, and Jews differ on theological points but agree that the Judaic-Christian tradition includes the fundamental concepts of the Fatherhood of one God, the significance of a soul, and the brotherhood of man. Such religious tenets are incompatible with prejudice and discrimination. Theories of racism and ideals of our religious tradition are poles apart. God can hardly be expected to maintain a "Jim Crow" heaven. It is intellectually impossible for the believer who respects the human soul to maintain that color or time of ancestral emigration make differences in a man's worth.

The third big idea is only a few centuries old. Today many moderns turn to scientific inquiry for a factual foundation upon which to base beliefs. Accumulating evidence testifies that racism is rot and that stereotyping is simple-mindedness.

The historians tell us that great civilizations have grown from many racial, religious, and ethnic groups in many times. The pages of history mention briefly many self-styled "master-races" whose day is done.

Psychologists assert that no tests have been

devised which prove the superiority in native intelligence of groups of one color, or religious persuasion, or geographical locality. Negroes have done better on certain intelligence tests than whites with lower educational standards, a typical indication that intelligence tests measure cultural background as well as native intelligence, but that they do not indicate inherent racial differences.

THE SCHOOLS IN ACTION

THUS, the facts and the ideals of the three big ideas are all on the side of those who assert that every child born into this world is to be considered well-born—"free and equal"—free to develop his abilities for his own and the social good; equal in his right to the opportunities for that development. No exceptions are made.

Yes, the democratic way of life, the religious tradition of Western culture, and the findings of scientific inquiry are powerful weapons for the educator. The number of schools enlisted in the building of good human relations is steadily increasing. Concern for decent human behavior is on the march. Schools in Detroit each have their own Intercultural Education Committee which sponsors good action in every building and shares ideas with a central coordinating body. The city of Santa Barbara, California, has a long record of achievement in this development of the presentation of contributions of regional cultures and of school work devoted to human understanding. Springfield, Massachusetts, has a program for citizenship which involves the permeation of the total school program with understanding and practice of democracy. The schools of Cincinnati devote an issue of the system's magazine each year to intercultural developments and to insights which should be shared by all. The teachers of Philadelphia observe each other's practices and share ideas in a "Conference on Living Together in the Modern World." Gary, Indiana, holds meetings of all administrators and of representative teachers during school hours to consider what can be done to better human relationships in the complex social pattern of that industrial city. The teachers and administrators of South Bend, Milwaukee, Pittsburgh, and Cleveland have decided that their schools need vital changes to meet the needs of the majorities and minorities. They have determined that their schools will offer opportunities for all boys and girls to achieve and share status. These schools are at work on

the revisions in the curricula that are necessary to attain this goal.

Educators in school systems like these, among others, find themselves in agreement with the Advisory Commission of the National Council for the Social Studies which wrote in *The Social Studies Look Beyond the War*:

"We in America must live together harmoniously in our nation. We are immigrants and the descendants of immigrants, a nation of many religions and races, a nation which rejects class and caste distinctions as incompatible with our way of life. Racist thinking and scapegoating, the fomenting of divided loyalties, the accepting of stereotypes about supposed hereditary superiorities of groups, are consonant neither with our democratic way of life nor with the scientific findings of our anthropologists and psychologists. As part of a societal attack on the economic and psychological roots of intergroup hostility, intercultural education in the schools can make a contribution."¹

Teachers face a formidable task in this mid-twentieth century. The struggle for democratic relationships among young Americans of varied cultures may prove to be long and strenuous. The enemies, bigotry, intolerance, group hatreds, will not yield easily.

A great task confronts educators, but it is also a high privilege. Creating unity and understanding among the religious, racial, ethnic, and economic groups of our nation is a task worthy of our best efforts. The teacher of social studies can play a unique role in this surging movement to eliminate evils and contradictions in our cultural practices—because he is a teacher. He holds at this crucial moment in history the opportunity to develop young Americans who can live together harmoniously in this nation built by persons of all creeds, classes, races, and nationalities.

WILLIAM VAN TIL

Bureau for Intercultural Education
New York

PEACE TASKS OF LOCAL ORGANIZATIONS

THE war interfered seriously with the activities of professional groups, local as well as national. Transportation difficulties were a major complication, but in addition teach-

ers were preoccupied with many special wartime activities which made attendance at and participation in meetings more difficult than in normal times. Simultaneously, however, the need for professional conferences to consider needs in social studies teaching which grew out of, or were emphasized by, the war increased. The teacher shortage drew to the classroom many men and women not well prepared for the responsibilities which they assumed in the emergency. Many experienced teachers needed opportunity to discuss their problems and to profit from the experiences of others. The introduction into the curriculum of such "neglected areas" as geography, the Far East, Latin America, the Soviet Union, and democracy and its rivals, not to mention war aims, wartime finance, and production units, created need for familiarity with many new teaching materials and educational procedures.

The end of the war and the easing of travel make possible the reassumption of professional responsibilities by local organizations. Needs have by no means decreased in number or in importance. The neglected areas to which the war called attention still need attention. As war issues and aims now pass into history, problems of international organization and international relations take on urgent importance. As some men and women who came into social studies classrooms in response to a wartime emergency now withdraw, many men and some women are returning to the schools after several years of being out of touch with educational needs and developments. Programs of local organizations are perhaps the most promising medium through which these returning teachers can become well reoriented and gain perspective on adjustments to programs that may have changed considerably during the years that they have been in service.

It is to be hoped that local groups will sense both their responsibilities and opportunities and resume the vigorous activities which characterized many of the organizations in the years before the war. In many states and in many communities it is voluntary professional organizations which constitute the most effective agency for the in-service growth and vitality of American teachers.

ERLING M. HUNT

¹ (Washington: National Council for the Social Studies, November, 1944), p. 19.

Secondary School Social Studies in 1945

Dorothy Merideth

WHAT are American boys and girls studying in their junior and senior high school social studies classes? Are they spending more or less time on social studies than their older brothers and sisters did in 1940? Partial answers to these and other questions about the secondary social studies curriculum can be given as a result of an inquiry recently completed. This survey of the social studies courses offered in American public schools during 1944-45 was conducted by means of questionnaires directed to state and city educational authorities. Replies were received from thirty-four of the forty-eight state departments of education to which questionnaires were sent, and from thirty-three of the forty-nine cities addressed. The cities which were invited to participate in the survey were so chosen as to obtain a wide spread in size and geographic location.

Each city was requested to describe its specific social studies program and every state department of education to describe the offerings of the typical high school (with enrollment under 200) in its state. The information requested in the questionnaire included:

- (1) The names of social studies courses offered at each grade level, the length of each course (1 or 2 semesters), and whether the course was required or elective.
- (2) Names of new social studies courses which have been introduced within the past five years.
- (3) Names of courses which have been dropped within the past five years.
- (4) Information as to what topics are currently receiving increased emphasis, and at what grade level each is being treated. Nine such current topics were listed for comment, and space was provided for others to be added.
- (5) Information as to whether the amount of required social studies has increased, decreased, or remained stationary within the past five years.

Of the sixty-seven questionnaires which were returned (34 states and 33 cities), all gave information as to the courses offered. Fifty-two (28

states and 24 cities) stated whether the amount of social studies required of all students had increased, decreased, or remained stationary over the last five years. Fifty-one (29 states and 22 cities) responded to the inquiry as to topics receiving special emphasis. It was impossible to tell in the remainder of cases whether there were no topics receiving special emphasis or whether that portion of the questionnaire had been overlooked.

THE RANGE OF OFFERINGS

TABLE I presents a summary of the reports as to social studies courses offered at each grade level. Examination of the table shows, as do all former surveys, that there is great diversity of course offerings, especially in the last two high school years. In the twelfth grade, for example, there are twenty different courses listed, even when the problems course with all its variations is counted only once.

Table I shows that, in spite of the great diversity, there is a clearly marked central tendency of offerings at each grade level. There can be little question as to what social studies courses are most frequently studied in each school year. As shown by the table the central tendencies or typical subjects in each grade are as follows:

Seventh Grade: United States History (in 14 of 34 states and 16 of 28 cities); Geography (in 13 of 34 states and 8 of 28 cities).

Eighth Grade: United States History (in 27 of 34 states and 23 of 27 cities); Geography (in 3 of 34 states and 6 of 27 cities).

Ninth Grade: Civics (in 26 of 34 states and 21 of 33 cities); Geography (in 9 of 34 states and 2 of 33 cities).

Tenth Grade: World History (in 31 of 34 states and 24 of 33 cities).

Eleventh Grade: United States History (in 29 of 34 states and 18 of 33 cities).

Twelfth Grade: Modern Problems, Problems of Democracy, etc. (in 22 of 34 states and 18 of 33 cities); United States History (in 5 of 34 states and 10 [some cities give this course in the eleventh grade in certain curricula and in the twelfth in others] of 33 cities).

With respect to required subjects, Table I is

A survey conducted under the auspices of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies is reported by a former teacher in the University of Minnesota High School, now on the faculty of the Laboratory School of the University of Chicago.

TABLE I
 SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES REPORTED BY GRADE LEVELS

Grade	REPORTS FROM 34 STATE DEPARTMENTS				REPORTS FROM 33 CITIES			
	Course ¹	Times Reported	1 or 2 Semesters	Required or Elective	Course ¹	Times Reported	1 or 2 Semesters	Required or Elective
VII ^a	<i>United States History</i>	14	2	R	<i>United States History</i>	16	2 in 7 1 in 8 ^b	R
	—to Civil War in 10				—1492 to date in 4			
	—with state hist. in 2				—with geography in 4			
	—with geography in 2				—1st half in 2 sem., 3			
	Geography	13	2	R	—1st half in 1 sem., 5			
	State history	5	1 in 3	R in 4	Geography	8	2	R
	Social Living	1	2	R	Civics	5	1 in 4	R
	Civics	1	1	R	Rugg Social Studies	3	2	R
VIII ^a	History, 1814-1914	1	2	R	World Backgrounds	3	2	R
	Community Life	1	2	R				
	Conservation	1	1	R				
	<i>United States History</i>	27	2 in 25 1 in 2	R	<i>United States History</i>	23	2 in 22 1 in 1	R
	—second half in 11				—1492 to date in 12			
	—entire course in 15				—2nd half in 1 sem., 1			
	—with state hist. in 3				—2nd half in 2 sem., 4			
	—with Civics in 5				—fused with English, 1; with			
IX ^a	State history	4	1 or 2	R	geog., 1; with local hist., 1;			
	Civics	3	2	R	with Lat. Amer. Hist., 3			
	Geography	3	1 or 2	R	Geography	6	2 in 4 ^c	R
	Social Living	1	2	R	Civics	3	1 or 2 ^d	R
	<i>Civics</i>	26	2 in 15 ^d	R in 10 ^d	<i>Civics</i>	21	2 in 17 ^d	R in 15 ^d
	Geography	9	1 in 4 ^d	E in 4 ^d	History, Anc. & Med.	5	2	E
	History, Anc. & Med.	4	2	E	World History	5	2	R in 3
	World History	2	2	R in 1	Geography	2	2	R
X	State History	2	2	R in 1	Rugg Social Studies	1	2	R
	Occupations	2	2	E	Social Studies (fusion)	1	2	R
	World Geog. & Econ. Cit.	1	2	E	Orientation	1	2	E
	Orientation	1	2	E	Occup. & Global Geog.	1	1	R
	Social Living ^e	1	2	R	World Geog. & Econ. Cit.	1	2	R
	Business Training	2	2	R-E				
	Problems of the South	1	2	R-E				
	<i>World History</i>	31	2	R in 8	<i>World History</i>	24	2	E in 16 ^f
XI	Geography	5	2	E	Modern History	9	2	E
	United States History	3	2	R	Geography	7	2	E in 3 ^g
	Anc. & Med. History	2	2	E	Anc. & Med. History	4	2	E
	Modern History	3	2	E	Latin American History	1	1	E
	Occupations	1	1	E	Lat. Amer. and Asia Hist.	1	2	E
	Safety Education	1	1	E	Consumer Education	1	1	E
					Occupations	2	2 in 1	E in 1
					Business Training	1	2	E
XII	<i>United States History</i>	29	1 in 1 2 in 25 (3) ^h	R	<i>United States History</i>	27	2 in 25 1 in 2	R
	—with Civics in 8				—with Civics in 6			
	—with state hist. in 1				—standard course in 18			
	—standard course in 19				—2nd half of 2 yrs. in 1			
	Geography	7	2 in 4	E	Modern History	5	2	E
	Modern History	3	2	E	Sociology	4	1, 3; 2, 1	E
	World History	2	2	E	English History	4	2, 3; 1, 1	E
	Probs. of Democracy	2	2	R, 1; E, 1	Civics or Gov't	3	1	E
XII	Sociology	3	1	R, 1; E, 2	Latin American History	3	1	E
	Economics	4	1	E	World History	2	2	E
	Consumer Education	2	1	E	Economics	2	1	E
	Latin American History	1	1	E	Prob. of Democracy	1	2	E
	International Relations	1	1	E	Consumer Education	1	1	E
	Human Relations	1	1	E	Psychology	1	1	E
	English History	1	—3	E	Economic Geography	1	1	E
	Lat. Am. & Canad. Culture	1	1	E	Contemporary Affairs	1	1	E
XII	Occupations	1	—3	E	Careers	1	2	E
	Civics	1	—3	E	Salesmanship	1	2	E
	<i>Problems of Democracy</i>	22	8 in 20	R, 18	<i>Problems of Democracy</i>	18	2 in 13	R or R-E in 10
	Sociology	13	1	R, 1; E, 12	Civics or gov't	8	1 in 7	R in 4
	Economics	13	1 in 12	E in 9	United States History	10	2 in 9	R
	Civics or Gov't	8	1	R, 4; E, 4	Economics	16	1	E or R-E
	United States History	5	2 in 4	R, 4; E, 1	Sociology	8	1	E
	International Relations	3	1	E	Latin American History	6	1, 4; 2, 2	E
XII	Geography	2	2 in 1	E	Psychology	4	1	E
	English History	1	—3	E	International Relations	3	1	E
	Latin American History	1	—3	E	Commercial Law	3	1	E
	Ancient History	1	2	E	Pacific or Far East	3	1	E
	State History	1	1	E	State History	2	1	E
	Civics, Econ., Curr. Events	1	2	R	English History	1	2	E
	Social Probs. & Inter-Am. Rel.	1	2	R-E	Post War Problems	1	2	E
	Psychology	1	1	E	Modern History	1	2	E
XII					Western Hemisphere	1	2	E
					Advanced Ancient Hist.	1	1	E
					Current History	1	1	E
					World Geography	1	1	E
					Consumer Education	1	1	E

¹ Courses which represent the central tendency are italicized² Five cities sent no report on Grade VII³ Incomplete information given on some questionnaires⁴ Six cities sent no report on Grade VIII⁵ One city failed to report on the ninth grade⁶ Runs through 2 school periods⁷ Required in 2, R-E in 5, E in 16, no answer as to requirement in 1⁸ Required in 1, R-E in 2, E in 3, no answer as to requirement in 1⁹ Required in some curricula offered by the system, elective in others

revealing. In the seventh and eighth grades the social studies subjects are required. The ninth grade Civics course is required in about one-half the states and in two thirds of the cities where it is taught. Tenth grade World History is usually elective in both states and cities. United States History is required in one year of the senior high school, usually in the eleventh. In the twelfth grade, the Problems course is required by more than two thirds of the schools that give the course.

COURSES ADDED OR DROPPED

THE great variety of courses listed in Table I is accounted for by the fact that individual schools, feeling a need for fuller treatment of particular topics, have introduced new courses. Only a small proportion of all the students can take any one of the courses, and so they are listed as electives. Most of them are one semester in length, and are offered in the eleventh or twelfth years, although some appear in the ninth and tenth. Some of these elective courses have been widely offered for one or two decades, for example, economics and sociology.

Many courses were reported in one or more questionnaires as "new" courses, introduced within the last five years. Because many of the replies to this section of the questionnaire did not give full information as to the grade placement and length of the new courses, only tentative conclusions can be drawn as to their general characteristics. Most of them appear to be electives. Usually they are one semester in length. Most of them have been placed in the eleventh or twelfth grades, although a few of the "new" courses result from changes in the basic social studies offering in the junior high school years. A majority of the new courses are reported by city curriculum directors rather than by state supervisors. This is to be expected since the state officials were asked to list only courses which had been "widely introduced" in their state. The new courses follow (numbers in parentheses indicate the course was listed by several states or cities):

Reported by States: Community Civics, ninth grade; Consumer Buying; Global Geography (4); Economic Geography; Air-Age Geography; World Geography (5), in either ninth or tenth grade; Contemporary History; Latin American History; World History; Culture of Canada and Latin America; State History and Geography (3); International Relations (3); Orientation; Problems of Democracy (2); Modern Problems.

Reported by Cities: American Government,

replacing a problems course; Careers, senior high school; Consumer Economics; Consumer Education (2); Current Events; Commercial Geography; Economic Geography; Global Neighbors; Man and His Environment, seventh grade; Western Hemisphere, twelfth grade; Far East; Latin American History (2); Pan American Relations; Pacific Area and Far East; World History; World History II, Asia and America; Guidance; Psychology; Salesmanship; Problems of Democracy (3); Post-War Problems.

The number of courses reported as dropped within the last five years was much smaller than the number of new ones. This substantiates the criticism frequently made that additions are made to the social studies curriculum continually, but that a comparable number of deletions are not made.

The disappearance of ancient, medieval, and modern history courses is in line with the increasing popularity of the one-year World History course. Likewise, the fact that economics was generally dropped as a separate course in one state reflects the trend toward a problems approach to the government, economics, and sociology materials commonly presented in the twelfth grade. One city which reported Problems of Democracy as a dropped course also listed Post-War Problems as a new course; the probability is that the change is primarily in name. The titles of courses omitted within the last five years in one or more of the reporting systems, follow:

Reports from States: Ancient History (8); Medieval and Modern History (4); Civics, ninth grade (3); Civics, seventh grade; Economics (as a separate course).*

Reports from Cities: Early European History; Geography, tenth grade (dropped because of scheduling difficulties—it is hoped to reinstate it, perhaps as a two-semester course); Problems of Democracy (2).

REVISION OF CONTENT AND EMPHASIS

THERE can be no doubt that the addition of new courses and the disappearance of a few old ones are important factors in the development of the social studies curriculum. Less conspicuous, but probably more important in the total picture, is the revision of course materials within the existing curricular framework. Course labels may, and usually do, remain the same although whole new units are introduced and old ones are condensed or omitted entirely. Therefore the evidence as to

changes in course offerings gives only part, and the most obvious part, of the current picture. That this is true was indicated by comments appearing on many of the returned questionnaires: "Nothing dropped; some rearrangement of content." "No whole new courses have been introduced but new units have been added." "Changing units in Modern Problems every few semesters." "Considerable change has occurred, but in the relative emphasis upon certain topics and arrangement of materials rather than total course changes." "No courses dropped; revisions rather than additions and subtractions." "I do

Community Study. Participants in the survey were asked to check the topics which were receiving fuller treatment than formerly, and to indicate at what grade level each was being emphasized. They were also asked to list, in a space provided, any other topic which was being given increased attention. The replies are summarized in Table II.

Three other topics were mentioned as receiving increased emphasis, each by one city school official: political parties, consumer education, and resource use.

Of the nine topics listed in Table II, Global

TABLE II
TOPICS RECEIVING INCREASED EMPHASIS IN SOCIAL STUDIES COURSES

Topic	No. of states reporting emphasis (29 replies)	No. of Cities reporting emphasis (22 replies)	School Years to which Topics are most commonly assigned		
			First in frequency	Second in frequency	Third in frequency
1. The Pacific	18	15	(8s, 7c, X) ¹	(7s, 5c, XII)	(7s, 4c, VII)
2. The Far East	17	16	(9s, 8c, X)	(6s, 6c, XI)	(6s, 3c, VII)
3. Russia	14	16	(7s, 6c, X)	(8s, 4c, XII)	(5s, 5c, XI)
4. Latin America	26	16	(11s, 8c, XII)	(11s, 7c, X)	(13s, 5c, XI)
5. International Affairs	20	15	(18s, 11c, XII)	(9s, 9c, XI)	(2s, 3c, X)
6. Social and Economic Planning	20	14	(17s, 12c, XII)	(10s, 1c, XI)	
7. Global or Air-Age Geography	25	20	(11s, 8c, X)	(7s, 8c, XII)	(6s, 8c, VII)
8. Intercultural Relations	14	9	(10s, 7c, XII)	(8s, 1c, XI)	
9. Community Study	17	12	(11s, 6c, IX)	(7s, 5c, XII)	(3s, 3c each, VII or VIII)

¹ s=state department report; c=city report; thus (8s, 7c X) item should be read: this topic was assigned to the 10th grade in 8 state department reports and in 7 of the reports from cities.

not think that any particular courses have been completely dropped from —'s high schools in the last five years, but going courses have been greatly modified as to content." "We have made quite a number of adaptations in our social studies courses in the last two or three years due to changes in world understanding." "Considerable change has occurred, but in the relative emphasis upon certain topics and arrangement of materials rather than total course changes." "We have introduced new units but not new courses."

The question of changing emphasis is pertinent, especially within these war years. In an effort to obtain some specific evidence as to shifts within courses, one section of the questionnaire was devoted to topics which might be receiving increased emphasis. Nine such topics were listed: (1) The Pacific; (2) The Far East; (3) Russia; (4) Latin America; (5) International Affairs; (6) Economic and Social Planning; (7) Global or Air-Age Geography; (8) Intercultural Relations; (9)

Geography has been most widely introduced, with Latin America coming close behind. Two topics concerned with plans for the postwar period, International Affairs and Social and Economic Planning, are third and fourth respectively. Three geographic areas, the Far East, the Pacific, and Russia, which have frequently been neglected in American classrooms in the past seem to be receiving almost equal amounts of emphasis, to come fifth, sixth, and seventh in order of mention. The events of the Second World War have undoubtedly focused attention upon them. Community study falls eighth in the list, and the important topic of intercultural relations is lowest in order of mention.

GRADE PLACEMENT

THE grade placement of topics which are emphasized in various schools seems to indicate an unsolved problem. The grade placement is difficult to determine even as reported in the questionnaires, and this uncertainty seems to

reflect the lack of definite ideas on the part of curriculum makers. Three precautions should be kept in mind in allocating the topics to the various grade levels: (1) in most of the questionnaires two or three grade levels were indicated for each topic reported as emphasized; (2) the margin between first and second or second and third place (in frequency of assignment to grade level) is often very small; (3) each topic is probably approached from a very different angle at each of the grade levels where it is frequently presented.

The four geographic areas (the Pacific, the Far East, Russia, and Latin America) are evidently presented most commonly either in connection with the tenth grade World History course or in the Geography course which is frequently offered for sophomores. Junior high school geography classes are also giving these areas increased attention. Latin America appears to be receiving expanded treatment in the eleventh grade United States History course as well. The twelfth grade Problems course is the place where attention is most likely to be given to the topics of International Affairs, Social and Economic Planning, and Intercultural Relations. Community study is most commonly emphasized in the ninth grade Civics course, although many twelfth grade Problems students also participate in it.

It is interesting and perhaps significant that, with the exception of Community Study, all the topics receiving increased emphasis are being treated chiefly in the senior high school grades rather than in junior high school. The complicated nature of the materials involved in most of them is, of course, a partial explanation. Perhaps senior high school teachers in general have greater freedom in planning their courses than do those in junior high schools, and therefore can more easily make appropriate shifts of emphasis. Perhaps the fact that senior high school teachers are usually required to have more extensive training than those in the junior high school, and so are in general better informed with regard to current issues and problems, is a partial explanation. In any case, the evidence reported in Table II indicates that senior high school social studies courses are more flexible in content than those in the junior high schools.

TRENDS IN REQUIREMENTS

THE replies indicate that there has been only a slight increase within the last five years in the amount of social studies required in the reporting city school systems. State departments of education, however, are definitely requiring more social studies courses in the smaller high schools. Over half the reporting states indicated that such increases had taken place since 1940. Perhaps the explanation of this difference between reports from cities and from state educational officials is that the requirements in city systems had already been set at a high level during the 1930's, and that statewide requirements have been raised during the last five years to approach the standard set by city schools. Evidence as to the trend in the amount of social studies required is given below:

States: Total states reporting, 28; increased amount required, 15; decreased amount required, 0; same amount required, 13.

Cities: Total cities reporting, 24; increased amount required, 3; decreased amount required, 1 (this decrease was explained as a temporary measure adopted to make time for a special pre-induction course for boys); same amount required, 20.

THE general conclusions to be drawn from the survey are ones which will surprise no one, please those with a middle-of-the-road viewpoint on curricular matters, and disappoint those on both the extreme right and the extreme left. Changes have come in the social studies curriculum since the late 1930's, but only gradually. While some schools have made changes by adding courses, a more general trend appears to be that of adding to, subtracting from, and adapting the standard courses already offered. This practice of introducing some new units and dropping out some old ones, but keeping a basic minimum content in the standard courses seems to be gaining popularity. The resulting social studies program is far from static. Its development, however, is evolutionary rather than revolutionary. Many students of the curriculum will desire more rapid change than that which is occurring, and will wish that the practices of the more advanced schools could be universally introduced.

Trends in the Teaching of Government

Ben A. Arneson

IN A discussion of trends in any field of activity there are at least two possible approaches. One is to give a factual report of the specific changes, if any, which have taken place within the period under observation, the use of a series of candid camera shots, if you please, showing both the wrinkles and the dimples of the photographed subject. The other approach is that of editorializing or perhaps philosophizing on the general movements during the period under study. The latter might be spun out of the recollections, the more or less casual observations, and the general social philosophy of the editor. It might perhaps be labelled "The Hazy and Somewhat Fragmentary Memoirs of a Teacher of Political Science," or it might reach the higher level of a philosophical discussion of the ends and purposes of government with a few scattered illustrations out of the past. Frankly this paper will consist of some fragmentary incomplete data, of ideas gleaned from the writings during the past decade which have been both reportorial and editorial, and of general opinions of the writer which are based on observations made as an undergraduate teacher during the entire fifteen-year period to which we are giving attention. Specific data for a different kind of treatment are simply not available.

One source of concrete data, although not an entirely satisfactory one, is made up of the lists of undergraduate courses in political science in the college catalogs of the country. As we all know, course listings by name and even by description do not always reveal the exact content of a course nor the methods used in it. For example, a course listed as American Government

may or may not be limited to the national field. It may or may not follow the functional or problem approach. Nevertheless, a comparison of these listings of fifteen years ago with those in current catalogs would be of some aid in an endeavor to discern the general trends from 1929 to 1944. An examination of the course listings of undergraduate courses in the respective catalogs of about thirty liberal arts colleges in various parts of the country, including a number in large universities, gives the clear impression that in general there have been no startling or marked changes in political science and curricula during the period. Of course, there is always the possibility that there may have been real changes in course materials, methods, and objectives, even though such modifications may not be superficially apparent.

RANGE OF OFFERINGS

IN GENERAL, then, it might be said, on the basis of formal undergraduate offerings, that the core of subject matter in political science seems essentially the same as fifteen years ago. American National Government, Comparative Government, Political Parties, State and Local Government, Municipal Government, Elementary Constitutional Law, Political Thought, International Law, International Relations, and many other courses appearing in current catalogs would have a familiar ring to any Rip Van Winkle political scientist who might have awakened from a fifteen-year nap in the year of 1944. I expect some one to raise the question as to whether the continued use of the course names may be an indication that college teachers in the field have all been taking a nap. Is the continuance of this same central core of subject matter a sign that we have not been up to date and have not been sensitive enough to changing conditions? Or is it rather a sign that we had discovered even long before 1929 the very center of pertinent subject matter? I feel that it is the latter rather than the former. Let me repeat that the mere titles of these courses by no means tell the whole story.

Changes in the teaching of government and in some related aspects of citizenship education during the past fifteen years are analyzed by a professor of political science in Ohio Wesleyan University. This paper was presented at a joint meeting of the American Political Science Association and the National Council for the Social Studies at Cleveland.

Along with these familiar titles of a decade and a half ago there are some newcomers as far as most colleges are concerned. To be sure, there were a few courses years ago dealing with administrative problems as opposed to legislative or judicial problems but I venture to say that the increase of attention to public administrative problems represents one of the important recent trends as far as course content is concerned. This is probably a tardy fruition of seeds planted many decades ago through the writings of Woodrow Wilson, Frank J. Goodnow, and others. It is brought about also by the emerging importance of administration in government and the realization that successful democracy is possible only with efficient administration. In some instances courses in Public Personnel Administration follow those in the more general public administrative field.

Listed with much less frequency than courses in public administration, but nevertheless receiving increased attention during the last decade or so, are courses dealing with public opinion, propaganda, and pressure groups. A clearer recognition by students of government that politics is to a large extent a struggle for power, has brought to the forefront of political thought the forces which both make and express public opinion. This study has not always taken the form of new courses but an examination of recent texts in the field of political parties reveals increased attention to factors affecting public opinion. While I have no concrete data to prove it, I am of the opinion that except for public administration, the field of public opinion, propaganda, and pressure groups has had the greatest increase of attention since 1929 of any of the generally recognized sub-fields of political science. Indications are that the field of international relations, international law, etc., which had enjoyed a period of growth in the twenties, receded somewhat in relative importance during the thirties only to regain its prominent position again in the early forties. I realize, of course, that in some colleges departments of public administration and of international relations have been set up outside of departments of political science. For purposes of this discussion, however, these two fields will be considered a part of political science as they in fact are in most colleges and universities.

PROGRAMS OF MEETINGS

ANOTHER concrete and easily accessible source of data on trends regarding content, methods, and materials consists of the programs

of the annual meetings of the American Political Science Association during the past fifteen years. It is apparent from a perusal of these programs that the interests of political scientists are much wider than the courses listed for undergraduate students indicate. It is also evident that the discussions at the annual meetings included public administration and public opinion much earlier than the appearance of these subjects as course titles. At practically every meeting there was a general or sectional meeting on some phase of public administration. Since 1939 there have been regular joint sessions with the American Society of Public Administration, which was organized in that year virtually under the sponsorship of the American Political Science Association. The stimulus resulting from this new organization has perhaps influenced graduate more than undergraduate courses but there is no question that it is reflected also in the undergraduate curriculum. Naturally there has been in the last few years much time devoted to topics involving problems of wartime administration which, in turn, has affected the content as well as the methods of undergraduate courses.

PROBLEMS OF TEACHING

AT ALMOST every meeting attention was given to teaching problems in political science with the undergraduate angle getting its full share of attention. For many years up to 1942, when the war caused the condensation and abridgment of programs, the Association gave increased time and energy to methods of teaching and use of materials. All of this interest was reflected in the undergraduate level and there can be no question but that one of the definite trends since 1929 has been toward improving the teaching of undergraduate courses. The interest in this area is indicated by joint sessions with the National Council for the Social Studies, such as those held in Washington in December, 1939, and in Chicago in December, 1944, where political scientists began to discuss more earnestly than ever before their responsibility for preparing teachers of the Political Science courses, namely, the increased attention to problems of teacher training. This trend, I believe, is more marked on the undergraduate than on the graduate levels. It may be difficult to furnish definite proof of this statement. I am, however, of the opinion that teachers of undergraduates are more likely to be conscious of the problems of teaching civics in the secondary schools than are teachers of graduate students. Both groups, I feel certain, are aware of this problem increasingly.

Closely related to the improvement of teaching both on the undergraduate and on the secondary levels is the whole matter of citizenship training. It is at this point that more cooperation is needed between high school and college teachers. Here again the programs of the American Political Science Association have shown that the responsibility for citizenship training looms much larger in the consciousness of political scientists than it did fifteen years ago.

But these programs are only a part of the evidence of the trends from 1929 to 1944. Less concrete but nevertheless significant data are found in the literature appearing in a variety of publications, such as *Social Education*, *School and Society*, the *Journal of Educational Research*, the *Journal of Higher Education*, the *American Political Science Review*, the *Public Administration Review*, the *Historical Outlook*, *Social Studies*, and many others. On the basis of an all too hurried perusal of portions of this literature and on the basis of my contacts through the years with college and high school teachers in the field of the social studies, I am going to make some further comments on the trends in this field, fully realizing that the data compiled from these two bases are fragmentary and that my statements represent opinions rather than conclusions scientifically reached.

CITIZENSHIP TRAINING

MAY we go back to the matter of citizenship training, or education for citizenship as it is sometimes called? There seems to be a noticeable trend on the undergraduate level to assume more and more responsibility for mass education in the duties and responsibilities, and the rights, too, of the citizen. The acceptance of this responsibility is evidenced in various ways. One is the conscious endeavor to relate the content of college teaching to current political events. Many have heard the story of the teacher in a junior high school who found her class greatly distracted by a fire across the street at the very hour when she was teaching a chapter in the text dealing with methods of fire protection. According to the story, you will remember, she sharply reprimanded her students for rushing to the windows where they could very likely have observed an illustration of effective fire protection. In our college classes often we have stuck to the text when current events of tremendous political significance were filling newspapers and air waves. I am of the definite opinion, however, that there is a trend toward more effective citizen training,

through the use of current illustration even though the chief actors in many current events do not synchronize their activities with the dates on which the syllabus indicates a certain topic is to be under discussion. A good illustration of the use of current events is the study of precinct politics in connection with the beginning course in government at the University of Toledo.

Another form which the acceptance of responsibility for citizenship training has been taking is the increasing attention given to relating college courses to the post-college life of the general student. I am not speaking at the moment of training for careers in the public service, but rather of the preparation of college trained people to becoming active participants in public affairs in the communities in which they find themselves. It is said that some of the American Indians who were trained at various schools in the ways of the white man's civilization would, on their return to the tribe, revert to the Indian way of life, such as leaving their beds and rolling themselves up in blankets to sleep on the ground. Teachers of political science are realizing more and more that our students who have learned some of the ways for improving our political parties and governmental activities have, when they join the average community, too often rolled themselves up in the blankets of indifference and apathy and have failed to support forces working for good government.

Dean Mosher of the School of Citizenship and Public Affairs at Syracuse University has for some time been working on a scheme which would place students of government in control, after graduation, with local political leaders in order that these young men and women trained in political science might be given opportunities for the practical use, in the public interest, of what they have learned. I suggest that more attention be given to this proposal which is concrete evidence of the trend toward developing post-college political activity on the part of persons trained in the social studies. For our graduates at Ohio Wesleyan we have developed what we call the Civic Volunteers, which has sought in a somewhat different manner to encourage post-college participation in public affairs, but I shall not stop to describe this device here. I might say that it has been criticized favorably and unfavorably by political scientists.

It must be borne constantly in mind that the mere giving of technical factual information about the machinery, processes, and objectives

of government alone will *not* motivate trained students to become champions of good government. In the same way that a well trained lawyer may use his talents to defeat justice rather than to promote it, a trained political scientist may use his training to aid forces working *against* the public interest. For these reasons I am gratified to note a trend in the direction of acceptance of responsibility for motivating college men and women. We are trying to teach the values of the democratic way of life. It is easier, as one recent writer has put it, to train political scientists than it is to develop public-minded citizens. There is, fortunately, an increasing number of teachers who believe that making good citizens is even more important than making more political scientists.

CLOSELY related to citizenship education is the need for stressing to students the increasingly important role which government plays and will continue to play in modern life. The trend in this direction may be partly due to the desire of political scientists to stress the importance of their own field, but I am of the opinion that it is also due in no small part to the desire of political scientists to develop in their students the realization that those students must in later life contribute their time and energy to make democracy work.

When the teacher deals with matters such as those we are now discussing, it may well be that he will, from time to time, be accused of engaging in indoctrination. Teachers of the social studies have always been searching for some position between complete ice-cold neutrality on controversial issues on the one hand and all-out advocacy of one side of a disputed question on the other. During the last few years the movement seems to be in the direction of indoctrination. Perhaps this is true because of the growing feeling that we should definitely propagandize for democracy—or should we say, rather, promote democracy.

PROBLEMS OF ORGANIZATION AND TEACHING

LET us now turn briefly to a perennial topic of discussion among political scientists, namely, the relative merits of the so-called descriptive approach as against the functional approach. As this is a matter which involves particularly introductory courses, it is of great interest to those teaching on the undergraduate level. While there does not seem to be any noticeable trend toward the all-out adoption of

the functional approach, there is, no doubt, some movement away from the purely descriptive.

Increased attention seems to be directed toward the problem of relating elementary college courses with the secondary courses in civics and other social studies. There is a movement, for example, to giving college students who have had adequate preparation in high school civics, proficiency examinations to determine whether they shall be excused from introductory college courses in political science. This has great advantages when college students enter with great variations among them as to the quality of high school courses in civics which they have taken. In Ohio, for example, there are in some high schools civic courses of the very best. At the same time, I doubt if civics could possibly be taught any more inadequately than it is in certain instances in the same state of Ohio. There are perhaps regions where they are uniformly of low grade. At any rate there seem to be some signs of a trend in the direction of facing more adequately the problems involved in correlating high school and college courses in the field of government.

The relation between political science and the other social sciences has received much attention in the past fifteen years. There is a greater realization that social, political, economic, and historical aspects are all closely related parts of an integrated whole. An example of this has been the introduction of general social science courses in some colleges. Whether this represents a significant trend, I am not ready to say. Another example is the development of what has been called functional majors, such as international affairs, public administration, diplomacy, etc., instead of the more orthodox departmental majors, but here the movement probably cannot as yet be called a definite trend.

Those functional majors are in a sense a part of the increased interest of political scientists in preparing each year a number of graduates for careers in the public service. We can probably say that there is a very definite trend both in the undergraduate and the graduate levels toward the stimulation of an interest in and preparation for the public service as a career.

As in most fields of college teaching, there has been in political science much discussion of the relative merits of the lecture method as opposed to the class discussion method. As far as I can find out, however, there is no marked movement in either direction. There does seem to be, however, increased attention to the possible usefulness of still another method, namely, the use of

what is sometimes called the workshop where a great variety of materials can be investigated under the immediate supervision of the teacher.

There has been a noticeable trend during the last few years to use more diversified material than formerly. Charts, documents, pamphlets are used to supplement the text. Inspection trips and talks by public officials in the class are becoming more common. Books of readings made up of a variety of primary and secondary source materials are increasingly used. Visual instruction with both moving and still slides is coming into greater use, although the use of such devices is still perhaps the exception rather than the rule.

IN CLOSING I want to turn to just one more topic. I do this in full realization that this paper by no means represents a complete and

exhaustive review of all the significant changes in teaching government on the undergraduate level since 1929. Let us turn briefly to the effect which war has had upon our teaching problems. The war has had more effect upon the substance of the political science curriculum than upon its form. Instead of adding a long series of newcomers, we have endeavored to bring established courses up to date and to relate ordinary peacetime problems to the war emergency. Problems of wartime administration, for example, are specialized administrative problems. The war has also stimulated greater use of the comparative method and perhaps most important of all it has compelled us to put forth greater efforts in the direction of stimulating in the student a greater appreciation of the democratic way of life.

On education lies a major responsibility for preventing future wars. This is both a grim obligation and a magnificent opportunity. The regular channels of education—schools, the press, radio, motion pictures, the pulpit, and discussion at all levels from the public forum, even the soapbox, to the family dinner table—must be utilized to disseminate the knowledge that peace is the most successful, the most profitable, as well as the most pleasant way of life. The glorification of war in the Axis countries was the deliberate result of planned educational processes. It is not enough for peace-loving nations to love peace. We must work for peace, teach its values, glorify it as it deserves to be.

American educators have felt that the comparative neglect of education under the plan of the League of Nations is partly responsible for the second world war. To insure that it will not happen again, every effort should be made to put before the public and the planners of the United Nations organization facts and ideas that can be used as tools and texts in educating the peoples of the world for peace. (George F. Zook, in the Foreword to J. L. Kandel, *United States Activities in International Cultural Relations*, Washington: American Council on Education, 1945.)

The German Problem Can Be Simple

René Albrecht-Carrié

AFTER five and a half years Germany has finally been brought to her knees through unconditional surrender. It is regrettable that no clear answer to the question of how to deal with her seems to have been worked out in advance of V-E Day. This problem, therefore, has assumed greater importance and urgency than ever. Many proposals have been made regarding the best way of dealing with Germany. Sumner Welles has advocated the formation of three distinct political units; the name of Secretary Morgenthau is associated with the drastic control of German industry; all the while the debate has gone on vigorously between the advocates of a "hard" peace and those who favor a "soft" treatment. But however much these proposals may differ among themselves, there is nevertheless a common denominator between them: they are all intended primarily to ensure a *durable* peace.

Now there is no reason to believe that any one scheme, to the exclusion of all others, can procure a lasting settlement. In fact, a variety of policies could be applied that would prevent Germany's becoming a menace again. It might be pointed out that, as far as keeping the peace is concerned, the much abused provisions of the Treaty of Versailles, and those more freely underwritten by Germany at Locarno, were perfectly sufficient and adequate. One thing alone proved to be lacking: the will to enforce them. Therefore, the first consideration to bear in mind in approaching the German problem is that whatever is decided upon shall not be of such a nature that we shall within a few years no longer feel like enforcing it and perhaps be at odds with our allies of today. This means that, for our own protection and best interest, the German problem must be approached with a certain amount of detachment rather than under the stimulus of the emotions of the moment, however justified these may be.

Policies in occupied territory, and the prospects for establishing a lasting peace in Europe, are discussed by an instructor in history in Columbia University.

Whatever is finally done, one mistake would be more fatal than any other, namely not to adhere to our decision. Take an illustration. As had previously been agreed, since final defeat the whole of Germany has been under Allied occupation. The question now is, how long is this occupation to last? Is it to be limited to the presumably brief period of transition until some sort of orderly régime is established, or is its main purpose to be the prevention of future German aggression? If the latter, then we must think in terms of a very long occupation, say between a quarter and a half century. For it must be realized that the issue of possible aggression is one that cannot but be some distance in the future, when Germany will have had an opportunity to recover and reorganize.

Such a long term occupation is perfectly conceivable and feasible, and there are those who advocate it. But let us ask ourselves the following question: can we visualize the presidential campaign of 1952, not to say 1948, having for one of its issues, shall we keep the boys on the Rhine? To ask the question is, we suspect, to answer it, however much we may have learned from the mistakes of 1919 and after. If we are not likely to support for long the device of a prolonged occupation, would it not be much sounder not to commit ourselves to any such scheme?

What we must devise, therefore, is a solution that is likely to command our support for a long period of time. That is the meaning of saying that the German problem can be simple: not that it is necessarily easy, but that the first requirement is not to indulge in complicated arrangements which would be calculated to confuse, weaken, and divert our purpose after a time.

DISARMAMENT VS. A SECURITY SYSTEM

IT WOULD no doubt be a happy state of affairs if the world could find its security in thoroughgoing and immediate disarmament. Few will be found at this time to advocate such a "pacifistic" solution and time need not be wasted in considering it. For all that has been said about the wicked munitions makers, we have come to realize that armaments in them-

selves are less a cause than a symptom of differences and conflicts. As a result of her defeat, Germany will be impotent for some time to come, but there is as little likelihood that we and Britain will scrap our respective navies as there is that Russia will abolish her army; rather, both we and the British are likely to introduce peacetime conscription.

Germany may or may not become a peaceful nation reconciled to her lot. But in any case, it would be neither wise nor practical to rely solely on such a change on her part for future safety. To the east of Germany, it would be surprising if the memory of the present war and what it has meant were soon to be erased in Russia. What is more, the course of the present war has shown that Russia alone may well be capable of handling Germany in the military sense.

The west presents a more difficult problem. It may be said in fact that the Anglo-French differences were at the root of the failure of the security system instituted in 1919. This war has confirmed the justness of Clémenceau's view that France alone was not a match for German power; it has also shown that Britain alone could at best survive, pending the arrival of additional assistance. A very sensible arrangement was made in 1919 in the form of an Anglo-American reinsurance treaty with France. American politics of the day caused the country to decline to ratify the commitment of President Wilson, even though that commitment was but one side of a two-sided bargain, the other part of which had been delivered. Britain, unwisely, used this circumstance to decline in turn to underwrite French security. Worse still, she proceeded to toy with the notion of restoring Germany lest French power become too dominant in Europe. She has paid the price of her policy.

At the moment, American opinion has, in many respects, come to accept the French views of 1919. One may doubt, however, that we should care to go back to the proposal of 1919 which has just been mentioned. But there is reason to hope that Britain has profited by her mistakes; the current discussion of a West European bloc, which might also include some of the smaller states of that region, would seem to point in that direction. We could at least lend our support to the formation of such a bloc which would then be in a position, like Russia in the east, to be a match for Germany in its own right. If it is objected that such a power combination would tend to be a counterweight to Russian influence, the answer is that of course it would. But if nei-

ther it nor Russia entertain aggressive designs toward each other—as there is reason to believe that they do not—there need be no irreconcilable difference between the two. It might even be said that, inasmuch as the problem of power cannot be ignored, a more solid arrangement can be made among powers which are of the same order of magnitude.

In addition, Czechoslovakia and Poland should also be brought into this security system. The case of Czechoslovakia ought to be easy for, as the result of her skilful and sane policy, she is on good terms with Russia as well as with the western powers and she could naturally fit into the role of connecting link between the two.¹ That of Poland is more difficult, partly because of circumstances, partly because of mistakes of her own making. Taken by itself, the Russo-Polish dispute would by no means present insuperable difficulties. If Russia wishes for no more than ethnically non-Polish territory, and if her statements about a strong and independent Poland can be taken at face value, an understanding can be achieved. Poland and her frontiers are a test case and a symbol of the much larger issue of Russian policy and aims in Europe. That, however, is primarily a Russian responsibility—and opportunity.

THE foregoing may sound like a revival of the old *Einkreisung*. Undeniably it is; and like the old encirclement it is rooted in the elementary fact that the initiative in disturbing the peace has, for some considerable time, come from Germany which has thereby given her neighbors a common stake in uniting against her. Unlike the old *Einkreisung*, however, this scheme would look to the creation of sufficient power on either side of Germany, the east and the west, to be able to meet her threat independently. It would thus amount to a double guarantee. It would also make easier what will have to be done some day, the readmission of Germany to the family of nations; for those who have borne the brunt of Germany's aggression will feel inclined to accept her in proportion to the degree that their fears of her are allayed.

Of importance, too, is the fact that should always be borne in mind that France, Czechoslo-

¹The recent incorporation of Ruthenia into the Ukraine is particularly interesting. Even though Russia had taken the position that she recognized the Czechoslovakia of pre-1938, the latter country has accepted the loss of Ruthenia with good grace rather than create an issue with her powerful neighbor.

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vakia, and Poland are the immediate neighbors of Germany, not Britain, the United States, or even Russia. There is, therefore, every reason to associate the former countries in any scheme designed to meet the German menace; their interest in it is apt to be more durable than that of more distant countries, especially the United States. Nothing could be more visionary and better calculated to breed future trouble than the implicit assumption of superior wisdom which finds expression in the view sometimes expressed that the German problem can be solved if only the French can be kept out of it.

It will also be noticed, and perhaps objected to, that this whole discussion concerns itself with what other powers should do, not with what to do to Germany. This is because the approach to the problem has been how to provide a durable peace, a lasting way of meeting the German danger, and because such a result has better prospects of being achieved through the actions of other powers than through the institution of elaborate controls within Germany. There is of course no absolute guarantee that the present allies may not fall out among themselves. But if they should so fall out, it may be pointed out that no amount of control of Germany written into a treaty will serve as a substitute for common action. The experience of the years between 1919 and 1939 ought to be sufficiently conclusive in this respect. If we and the British on the one hand and Russia on the other begin after a while to court Germany to our respective sides, if Britain contemplates a restoration of German power in deference to outmoded ideas of power balance on the continent of Europe, then we must indeed look for trouble, for we shall be playing Germany's game. But if we do those things, any controls that may have been instituted to prevent rearmament and aggression will also go by the board.

The objection may also be raised that the foregoing proposal leaves out of account any retribution for Germany's misdeeds—amounts in other words to the advocacy of a "soft" peace. That objection must be met. First of all, however, it must be emphasized that the chief issue in this discussion is not how to punish Germany but how to insure against a recurrence of German aggression. We should even go further and assert that if there were any assurance that a so-called "soft" peace would better guarantee our safety than would a "hard" one then our (the Allies') selfish interest would point to the desirability of a "soft" peace.

DISARMAMENT, REPARATION, AND REFORM

BUT the issue between the two kinds of peace is in reality irrelevant. We are in many ways confronted with a situation similar to that of 1919; now as then, even assuming the most lenient terms imaginable (short of taking the fanciful position that the prime obligation of the world is to provide for the contentment of the "master race") the results of the war are bound to be highly unpleasant to Germany. Better therefore leave it to her to complain and bemoan the injustice of her fate if she so feels inclined, leave it to her to make the necessary adjustments, and proceed on the simple assumption that retribution will be exacted from her, as it is proper that it should be. This retribution must be subject to two qualifications only: (1) it must be practicable; (2) it should be, as much as possible, easily enforceable and of such a nature that we shall continue to enforce it.

Thus for instance Germany should be disarmed. But we should not partition her, again with two possible qualifications. The turning over of East Prussia to Poland has a good deal to be said in its favor; depending upon the outcome in Holland, there may be a strong case for compensating that country with some German territory. Likewise, we should not commit ourselves to the hopeless chicanery and complications that would be involved in a close supervision of German industry. If it is objected that Germany will thereby be left with the means to rearm the answer is that armament on a scale necessary for a major war cannot be effected secretly, so that there would be ample warning of Germany's preparations. It would then again be a question of our willingness to forestall her aggression in time. If we have not the will to do this, we are even less likely to be willing to shoulder for any length of time the more awkward burden of enforcing the intricacies of detailed supervision of her industry.

Moreover, German industry will make it possible to collect reparation, and reparation should most decidedly be demanded of Germany. We may assume that the mistakes which were made after the last war will not be repeated in this respect. But that does not mean that reparation cannot be collected. There is nothing impossible about using German labor for reconstruction, nor about demanding heavy deliveries in kind. The criterion might be that the German standard of living should be no higher than a certain level, determined by reference to that of the peoples she temporarily conquered. That is a decision

for the Allies to make and which might be enforced with comparative ease.

Finally, we should steer clear of any attempt to enforce reforms upon Germany from the outside, whether political or educational; such attempts would merely raise hornets' nests of difficulties than which nothing would be better calculated to make us give them up in short order. Nor need we waste any time in making distinctions between "good" and "bad" Germans. The most that can be done, if we wish to do it, is a prompt and drastic punishment of war criminals. Beyond that point, granting that there are "good" as well as "bad" Germans, the only safe and practicable attitude is to consider the German people as a whole, let them liquidate their own internal quarrels, let them set up democratic institutions if they can and will, let them finally re-educate themselves. The mistake of 1918 in stressing that we were fighting the Kaiser but had no quarrel with the German people, understandable and well meant as it was, only served to create confusion in the end. Having got rid of their Kaiser, many Germans were dismayed at finding that the consequences of the war were not thereby erased; their disappointment was fertile ground for the legend of Allied betrayal and duplicity. The slogan of "unconditional surrender" has been the answer to that episode. To the extent that this slogan was intended to keep the record straight, and to that extent only, was it sound.

The results of the endeavors of the German people can be taken as a measure of their change of heart, if such comes to pass. If and when Germany is to be readmitted on a basis of full equality to the family of nations; or if—as indeed may well be the case, especially in this country and Britain—we begin after a while to feel sorry for the "poor Germans," then at least there is hope that the guarantees which have been outlined in the earlier part of this discussion might still be operative and prove effective.

THE PROSPECTS FOR LASTING PEACE

ONE more question may finally be considered, namely, what are the prospects that the proposals which have been outlined will serve the purpose of insuring against a recurrence of the German danger? So long as Germany entertains aggressive designs of expansion, there is no other hope than to have sufficient force available to meet her own force. While Germany is kept disarmed such force need not be very great. The

real problem in any case is not only the existence of sufficient force but, even more, the willingness to use such force if and when occasion demands it. For the longer run, the German problem can only be solved in a real and permanent sense through the acceptance on Germany's part of a peaceful way of life.

Germany's policy, ever since Bismarck, has been directed toward the avoidance of having to fight a coalition, Bismarck's nightmare of a war on two fronts. This was sound calculation. But the course of the present war has shown that the avoidance of the two-front war is no answer to Germany's difficulties in the way of successful aggression. For a period of over a year Britain was fighting a wholly defensive war on the seas and in Africa and our resources took time to mobilize, with the result that Germany, during that time, was able to throw not only her own forces, but the economic strength of virtually the entire European continent, against Russia. As stated before, Russia was able, essentially single handed, to meet the onslaught. It would be surprising if this fact failed to make a deep impression on the German military mind and on the popular mind as well.

But this is not all. Germany's willingness to risk war in 1914 was based in part on the belief that Britain would remain neutral. Not only did Britain not remain neutral, either in 1914 or in 1939, but in both conflicts the United States ultimately found its way into the war against Germany. That, too, ought to be a sobering thought for Germany.

Perhaps the recurrence of defeat after a quarter of a century may cause a larger number of Germans to question the premises on which their willingness to support aggressive military power had been based. From the point of view of the outside world, it does not matter so much from what motivation Germans may become reconciled to a peaceful way of life; the important thing is that they do so. Making clear beyond cavil the insufficiency of German power is the best contribution that the outside world can make toward bringing about the change.

But, in the last analysis, this is a hypothetical development of the future. Pending its happening, and whether or not it happens, we must first have sufficient power at hand to meet the German danger and, even more, be willing to make use of that power if necessary. If our purpose weakens, we shall have only ourselves to blame for the outcome.

An Education for Peace: A Model United Nations' Peace Conference

Adda Bozeman

A MODEL United Nations' Peace Conference was held on May 9 on the campus of Augustana College. Approximately four hundred students from the college and two hundred carefully selected students from the high schools of Rock Island, Moline, and East Moline participated in the work of the conference. These students represented the various United Nations, with whom they had sought to identify themselves by studying the history and the national aspirations of each. The real work of the peace conference was done, not in the plenary sessions, but by commissions on boundaries, mandates, reparations and related problems, communications, the treatment of enemy countries and liberated areas, and the organization of peace. All of these commissions had met on numerous occasions before May 9 to iron out the more difficult problems.

Although it is hoped that the students of our colleges may not have to plan any model peace conferences in the future, their educational values cannot be denied. It has long been recognized as very likely that there will not be a general peace conference at the end of this war. But the students at Augustana, who took the initiative in planning a model conference, decided nevertheless to make plans for such a conference rather than for a number of separate ones dealing with the varied problems arising from the war and the return of peace. In this manner they hoped to secure a larger active participation on the part of the students, inasmuch as each of those participating would be apt to find at least one topic of special interest to him. Only a very small number of students would be seriously concerned about the problems of inter-

national communication; a larger number would probably be able to retain over weeks of study a sustaining interest in the question of international boundaries; some were at the outset immensely interested in the treatment of enemy countries; while others were eager to build the foundations for a more lasting peace. These interests were genuine and provided an incentive for study which cannot easily be found in the average classroom. The faculty members who had been requested by the students to act as advisers needed, therefore, to do little guiding except in providing the necessary bibliography for each commission and in directing the particular student to the literature from which he could learn something about the national aspirations of the country which he represented.

EVEN though the faculty advisers were not called upon to do a great deal of work, their part necessitated an unusual degree of co-operation between men and women whose fields of specialization had hitherto not called for a mutual understanding of one another's problems. Each student—whether he represented the United States, China, or small Costa Rica—had to acquaint himself with the history of the country for which he was the spokesman. He had to familiarize himself with the geography of the country, with the economic life of the people, with the relations of the people to those of its neighbors, with the role of the nation in winning this war, no matter how small that role may have been, and with the attitude of its government toward the League of Nations between the two world wars. Even a partial understanding of these matters necessitated a study of air, sea, and land communications, and of such questions as the tariff, the problem of natural resources, colonies, mandates, naval bases, armaments, and a number of others.

The development of friction as the national aspirations of the various countries clashed became very real to the students, who successfully identified themselves with the countries that they

A member of the history department in Augustana College, Rock Island, Illinois, describes a model conference of the United Nations which developed understanding of international problems and an interest in further study of international relations.

sought to represent. The word *compromise* received a deeper meaning, as did the word *emotions*. At one of the preliminary meetings of the various commissions on May 7, many of the students became very "American" and forgot their supposed nationality in a spirit of victory. The "Big Four"—consisting of more advanced students who had assumed the responsibility of guiding the delegates from the United States, Russia, Great Britain, and China on all important policies—faced a serious situation when they tried to temper the spirit of patriotism. Their tasks were not only Herculean in dealing with diverse problems which would naturally come before the Big Four, but the respective delegations of these countries were large, having many members on each commission.

Then, too, it was especially difficult to evade diverse views and opinions among the representatives from the United States. Some had been influenced by the *Chicago Tribune*, and the high school students in particular found it hard not to view things entirely in the light of a strong spirit of nationalism, if not from an imperialistic point of view. There was a strong resentment toward Russia's efforts to influence the conference, a result partially due to the fact that no delegation took its work more seriously than the representative from the Soviet Union.

Neither the actual results of the model peace conference nor the so-called "international incidents," which from time to time threatened to break up the work of the commission or of the plenary sessions, though they may have been more or less realistic, were of prime importance. The students were, however, brought to understand—because they wanted to do so—the workings of the various peace commissions, an understanding which a series of carefully prepared

lectures could not have achieved so well. They learned about the techniques which are employed at such conferences: parliamentary methods, voting procedures, the drafting of resolutions, and any number of other matters to which the average student gives little thought.

The most important educational value of the conference came as a result of the students' wide readings, because these were now useful and essential to them. The students became aware of the fact that knowledge has to be integrated and that it does not consist of isolated facts or even of separate fields. In other words no problem of international significance can be called wholly economic or wholly political or wholly anything else in a true sense. The simplest thing often becomes complex as more information is possessed, thus creating a spirit of modesty and humility as a solution is sought. An interest was awakened in history, economics, sociology, political science, and geography.

A VERY definite outgrowth of the peace conference was a desire on the part of the students for a course in international affairs. Plans for such a course in international problems to be offered jointly by a number of faculty members have been made. The course will consist of lectures and discussions of literature dealing with international issues, the growth of a world consciousness in America, international trade and commerce viewed in the light of developments since 1919, international monetary agreements, tariffs, natural resources, reparations, inter-allied debts, lend lease, the treatment of minorities, and with efforts at maintenance of peace through the League of Nations, disarmament or armament, treaties of arbitration, and related problems.

Missouri Schools and Missouri's New Constitution

W. Francis English

ON FEBRUARY 27, 1945, the voters of Missouri adopted a new constitution. The document was submitted by the Constitutional Convention of 1943-44 to replace the one adopted in 1875 and amended sixty times in the seventy years of its existence. The majority for the new charter was about two to one. Every twenty years Missouri voters must pass on the proposition of calling a constitutional convention. In 1922 a convention was called but all fundamental amendments submitted by it were rejected. Since 1924 several important changes have been adopted by the voters but none of them went to the heart of the problems of governmental reorganization.

The question was submitted again in 1942 and, much to the surprise of many people, a new convention was authorized. Eighty-three delegates were elected on a bipartisan basis on April 6, 1943, and the convention met at Jefferson City from September 21, 1943, to September 29, 1944.

EDUCATORS TAKE A HAND

MISSOURI schools and Missouri educators had a conspicuous place in the whole process of constitutional revision. The first demand for the convention came from a citizens' meeting held at Westminster College at Fulton in the spring of 1942. The meeting was called by President Franc L. McCluer of that college. About half the people who attended this meeting were Missouri educators. At the meeting of the National Municipal League held in St. Louis a short time later, Dean Isidor Loeb of Washington University and several other Missouri educational leaders were prominent in

helping to organize the group that worked for the calling of the constitutional convention. The Missouri State Teachers Association was active in this campaign. Four of the 83 delegates selected to the convention were educators. One was President McCluer of Westminster College. W. L. Bradshaw of the political science department of the University of Missouri, L. E. Meador, professor of economics at Drury College, Springfield, and R. F. Wood, professor of history at the State Teachers College at Warrensburg, were the other teacher members. Several delegates were former teachers and A. F. Lindsay, president of the St. Joseph board of education, was the chairman of the convention's committee on education. McCluer, Bradshaw, and Meador were chairmen of important committees and all the educators were active in the convention.

As soon as the convention was authorized, the Missouri State Teachers Association appointed a committee to study the constitutional problems of education and to make recommendations to the convention. After careful research this committee prepared a report and presented its recommendations to the convention.¹ Its proposals were adopted with only minor changes. Provisions are made for the support of kindergarten and adult education. Special schools for vocational education are authorized on a regional basis. Public libraries can be supported more adequately from taxes, and a more business-like arrangement is made for handling permanent school funds.

In the field of general government a number of improvements have been made. Recent constitutional changes, such as the nonpartisan court plan and the bipartisan highway and conservation commissions were not disturbed.

THE CAMPAIGN FOR RATIFICATION

AFTER the convention adjourned in September, 1944, it was evident that a spirited fight was in prospect over the adoption of the

That schools can play a part in vital public affairs to the benefit of the public interest as well as the effectiveness of social learning is demonstrated by the record of Missouri schools during the drafting and adoption of a new state constitution. This account is contributed by an associate professor of history in the University of Missouri.

¹ See Everett Keith, "A New Era for Missouri Children," *N.E.A. Journal*, XXXIV: 81-82, April, 1945.

new charter. Numerous groups were dissatisfied and a small minority of the convention delegates were bitterly opposed to the proposal. Provisions in regard to the small loan business, the merit system, more adequate representation of cities in the state senate, and the mild provision giving the general assembly the right to provide for doing away with separate schools for Negroes all caused opposition.

The opponents built a strong, well-financed organization. The advocates set up a state-wide organization and secured the support of many organizations representing labor, business, farming, and education. Missouri engaged in the most bitter struggle over a state issue since the days of Reconstruction. The opponents used all the techniques known to the modern propagandist, and the friends did a thorough job of organizing and advertising the merits of the new document. The executive director of the organization for the new charter was President McCluer. The Missouri State Teachers Association and many school leaders were in the forefront of the fight. On the other hand, a small minority of rural educators, particularly a few county superintendents, were found in the opposition's ranks.

A CLASSROOM UNIT

IT SEEMED to the leaders of the Missouri Council for the Social Studies that the situation presented a splendid opportunity for the pupils in Missouri schools to study the problem of constitution making, as well as the pressing problems of Missouri. Probably it would be many years before public interest would again be aroused over a state problem, as it would be in the next few months. For a number of years there had been a strong demand from some of the leaders of the Council for greater emphasis in the social studies on regional, state, and local problems.

A survey of the available texts showed that the materials on modern Missouri were thin or nonexistent. A number of texts on Missouri history for the middle and upper grades were available, but all of them presented brief surveys of the history of the state with very little on the governmental problems and practically nothing on the pressing problems of the modern period. Materials for the secondary schools were practically nonexistent. There was a real need for text materials, supplementary references, and units for teachers and pupils.

A committee of six was appointed by the president of the Missouri Council for the Social

Studies to survey the problem and prepare materials for use in the schools. It was decided to do three things. A booklet would be prepared and published by the Missouri State Teachers Association tracing the constitutional history of the state with special emphasis on the problems of the modern period. A unit on the constitution would be prepared for distribution to teachers. Materials would be assembled for use in the schools and supplied where possible to the teachers. The Missouri State Teachers Association assumed the publication and distribution cost and the Missouri Council's committee undertook to prepare the booklet, the unit, and suggestions of usable materials.

A 48-page booklet entitled *Constitution Making in Missouri* and a long unit with rich and varied activities were ready for distribution in December. Both were sent free to all teachers or school systems that requested them. Sixty thousand copies of the booklet were published and by the time of the election the supply was exhausted.

The booklet traced the history of Missouri's constitutional problems from the short, simple, and conservative document adopted by the frontier state in 1820, through the attempt at change in the convention of 1845 when the full tide of Jacksonian democracy swept over the state, through the work of the Radical Republicans and their famous iron-clad-oath constitution of 1865, to the adoption of the restrictive and conservative document written by the Democrats and ex-Confederates in 1875. The latter part of the booklet traced the struggle Missouri had gone through since 1875 in trying to meet the problems projected into its life by the rapid expansion in governmental services and the changes wrought by industrialism. The main currents in social and economic development, the dominating philosophies and issues of the different periods, the conflict between rural and urban forces, and the attempts to make state and local government adequate in the modern world were emphasized. Particular attention was given to the problems of civil rights and the importance of the state bill of rights in protecting individual liberties.

The unit outlined the fundamental subject matter to be covered, set up a large group of activities that reached all levels of ability, gave a list of usable references, and suggested methods of evaluation. It was a long unit and contained an abundance of excellent suggestions so that a teacher could adapt parts of it to any situation. A survey of all types and sizes of schools indi-

cated that the unit was used widely and that adaptations of it were made in other schools.

CLASSROOM STUDY AND ACTIVITIES

DURING January and February, 1945, most schools studied the problems of constitution making. The time taken, the method of approach, and the thoroughness with which it was done, depended on the competence and enthusiasm of teachers and administrators. In some schools a great deal of time was taken for the study while in others only a very little. The publications of the Missouri Council and the Missouri State Teachers Association, the address of the convention to the people, publications of various organizations for and against the proposal, and the newspapers were drawn upon for materials. Nearly all schools gave attention to the question in twelfth grade problems and ninth grade citizenship, but in a majority of schools all social science classes from the seventh grade through the senior high school studied the constitution. The time allotment was from a week to four weeks.

In schools offering public speaking, considerable time seems to have been taken in speech classes for debates, forums, and speeches on the constitution. In some schools the study was carried on in English classes. School assemblies were often given over to it, sometimes with outside speakers, but more often with student speakers arguing the merits of the new code. Student speakers' bureaus were established in some secondary schools and civic clubs had the younger people appear before them as active agents in advocating the adoption of the constitution. In a number of communities students became advocates in their homes and solicited the votes of their parents. Posters made by students were much in evidence. The more liberal provisions for education and those that gave the people a chance to solve community problems through local governmental action particularly appealed to the students. Several schools conducted elections on February 27 and students usually voted for the new document by larger majorities than did the adults.

Since the majority of administrators and teachers were in favor of the adoption of the new instrument, they undoubtedly were enthusiastic advocates in many of the classrooms. In reply to a suggestion in a questionnaire that "maybe the schools were mere propaganda agencies" one high school principal replied:

"The statement needs no refutation. My feeling is that the schools were propaganda agencies and that was no evil." A superintendent replied that, "Missouri passed her examination on election with credit and we feel the children went along with other Missourians." One school newspaper in which the superintendent was opposed to the new constitution indicated that the children were also strongly opposed.

Opponents of the constitution gave the schools credit for the favorable vote but they were only one of the agencies that deserve credit, if credit is due. The legislature was in session at the time of the election and many members were opposed to the new charter. The floor leader of the minority party castigated the schools for the use of the booklet and for the enthusiasm with which they engaged in the study and advocacy of the new charter.

THE Missouri Council for the Social Studies takes pride in its part in getting the problem into the classrooms. It was the sincere attempt of the Council and its committees on materials to get good text materials and usable units for teachers and students. It could not direct what went on in the various schools but it did attempt to see that materials that were properly graded, well balanced, and fair were put into the hands of teachers and pupils. Missouri's children are much better acquainted with the structure of Missouri government, the pressing problems of today, and how the state has arrived at its present position than they were before they studied the unit. Young Missourians had a vital part in making a momentous decision and many of them have the feeling that they helped the State take a forward step.

The adoption of the new constitution was only a step in the improvement of the state and local government. It is necessary for the general assembly to rewrite a great many of the statutes before July 1, 1946, in order for the provisions to be carried out. There is some doubt whether the general assembly will pass laws in strict accord with the spirit of the new constitution. There is a disposition in some quarters to weaken the best provisions of the new charter by weak and compromising legislation. The fight for good government is not over, and Missouri schools need to continue to make young people aware of the problems, and active in the process, of making democracy effective and efficient in their state and in their communities.

The Law Against Discrimination and the Social Studies

William Nosofsky

THE recent passage of the Ives-Quinn bill in New York State has led to the introduction of similar measures in other state legislatures. In the words of Governor Dewey, the law represents "one of the great social advances of our time . . . an essential step in the process of preserving economic freedom which is fundamental to human liberty." Its advocates have maintained that it seeks merely to put teeth into anti-discrimination clauses of both the State and Federal Constitutions.

The special significance which this law possesses for the social studies may perhaps best be seen in the great interest evinced in education itself by the members of the New York State Commission Against Discrimination, who took part in the framing of the bill. Not only was an extensive study made of the work now being done in public and private schools to combat prejudice, but the law itself authorizes the permanent commission to establish in New York State "advisory agencies and conciliation councils, local, regional, or State-wide," and to "issue such publications" and to carry on such "investigations and research as in its judgment will tend to promote good-will and minimize and eliminate discrimination because of race, creed, color or national origin." Indeed, one of its joint authors, Assemblyman Irving M. Ives, regards these educational provisions as the most vital feature of the law. And not without good reason, for the successful operation of this law requires an understanding and cooperative citizenry. Clearly, secondary schools and the social studies in particular have a vital role to play in creating such understanding and cooperation.

IF IT is true that this law needs education, it is likewise true that education needs the

A teacher in the Brooklyn High School for Specialty Trades suggests some opportunities for teachers to strengthen education against intolerance and for democratic intergroup relationships.

stimulus provided by the law. Introduced into the curriculum of the social studies, it could help to eliminate a serious contradiction in the thinking of high school students which has been noted by many investigators of current civic education who have pointed out that although students profess adherence to abstract ideals of tolerance they fail at the same time to recognize their referents in living situations about them. Pupils will accept the generalization, for example, that much of America's greatness is due to immigration but not the generalization that refugees should be granted equal economic opportunity. One of the reasons for this regrettable hiatus may perhaps be found in the observation that "except in some localities, little or nothing is done to teach the affirmative obligations of citizenship and opposition to discrimination." The study made by H. E. Wilson of citizenship training in the schools of New York State¹ lends ample support to this contention. A specific treatment of concrete discriminatory situations (such as those covered by the law) can contribute greatly to the elimination of this all-too-prevalent gap between high sounding words about democracy and an intelligent and courageous grappling with ensconced intolerance.

Finally, if one of the objectives of the social studies is to acquaint students with the ideals and problems of American culture and history, then surely this law, epitomizing as it does the American tradition of equality of opportunity, merits serious consideration. To omit a study of this partial attempt to solve an important American dilemma would result in an undesirable lag on the part of the school behind the changing context of American life. It should be noted in passing that the term "study" as used here covers more than that type of instruction in current events which Wilson considers "as superficial as the newspaper headlines." "Many schools," he says, "fail to deal adequately with the basic

¹ *Education for Citizenship* (Regents' Inquiry Into the Character and Cost of Education in the State of New York). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1938.

principles, conditions, and explanations which may well be considered in the sphere in which the schools should make its primary contribution to education about contemporary events."

RECOGNIZING the relevance of this law to the social studies, how can we provide for it in the curriculum? Regardless of what point of departure and line of development are used, such topics as the following could profitably be considered.

History courses

1. History of the ideal of equality of opportunity in America
2. Contributions of the various groups to American economic life
3. History of state and federal statutes delimiting all manner of discriminatory practices in trade, transportation, labor relations, etc.
4. History of civil rights in the various states
5. History of scapegoat movements during periods of economic crisis.

Economics courses

1. Areas of discrimination in employment
2. Other areas of economic discrimination such as housing, or wholesale and retail practices
3. Reasons for the support and opposition to the bill on the part of labor unions and chambers of commerce, respectively
4. Negroes as workers: efficient or inefficient, reliable or unreliable, etc.
5. The relationship between economic conflict and prejudice.

Civics courses

1. Minorities in a democratic society
2. Provisions of the law itself
3. The role of religious, business, labor, and civic organizations in legislation
4. Legislation or education or both regarding public problems
5. Group interests and their standards of value.

IF THE facts gained from the study of these topics are to be of any value, the emotional drives of our youth must be awakened or else such information will be so much more baggage, soon to be discarded. Unfortunately, a great part

of the instruction in the social studies has been characterized by just this overemphasis upon facts for facts' sake. In most cases our instruction fails to influence the personal and social behavior of our youth. Facts may suffice in school tests, but they are not enough for life. This gap between school and society only impoverishes both. Students must be encouraged to *do* something about what they learn—in this case, economic discrimination in general and this law in particular. But how are the schools to stimulate effective action?

First, by leading students to see that economic discrimination is a moral or economic loss, or both, to all in both majority and minority groups. Secondly, by providing opportunities and situations in which students can act (later on they will find their own opportunities). Direct contact with outstanding representatives from all kinds of civic organizations is an excellent source for experiences which can stimulate students to act.

What can they do now as students? They can hold panel discussions.² They can discuss the law with older relatives and acquaintances. They can write to various officials and the press. They can observe developments when the law begins to operate and act accordingly. They can act now against any kind of discrimination wherever they happen to be.

Rarely have teachers of the social studies been presented with a better opportunity to justify Horace Mann's belief in education as "the great equalizer in the conditions of man." By utilizing it, they can play their part in the realization of the ideal of free and equal economic opportunity, without which realization democratic education in the fullest sense will always remain a distant ideal.

² On March 17, 1945, a city-wide conference on the problem of discrimination was held in New York City by student representatives of public and private high schools in the city.

American Colonists—1945

Vivienne Anderson

THE course of study looked unhappily forbidding with its wearying prescription of "Colonial Settlement and Life: first seven weeks." My eye ran down the carefully prescribed approaches and queries designed to prod students into a consciousness that a colonial life existed in the distant past and that the far-away men and women who peopled it had some pretty difficult problems. I looked at the blueprint that had recently begun to demonstrate an experimental leaning toward a core curriculum by retaining the seventh grade homeroom groups with their advisers for three and sometimes four periods a day. Even the principal conceded, however, that we were still a traditional big-city junior high school, and that most of the progress in curricular change was confined to the little white lines that connected periods on the blueprint. I thought of the awed, eager faces of the 7A group that had just entered the building, and I realized suddenly and decisively that it was time for the blueprint to be followed in the classroom.

THE class and I aired our impressions of colonial life. We read some interesting fiction and non-fiction from our classroom library and our school library, and we discussed some excellent mounted pictures of the movie "Maid of Salem," which our school librarian provided. And then I explained that we were free to use the wood shop, the sewing class, and the art room as well as our time together for the study of colonial life. Arms shot into the air.

"Let's make colonial houses in shop!"

"Let's make a pillory and punish people!"

"I wanna make the stocks!"

"Would anyone like to make the ducking stool?" the teacher interrogated.

Almost all twenty male sadists threw their arms wildly into the air, and I suffered a brief

moment of trepidation for the shop teacher who I feared might not be entirely accustomed to this degree of enthusiasm.

The girls decided that they would pool patterns, material, and stuffing, make real colonists and dress them in colonial clothing. The class felt that time could be spent profitably in the art room designing colonial styles and drawing models for the church, the school, the homes, and the cherished contrivances for punishment. Committees were quickly organized. One was selected to draw up plans which would specify the actual buildings that might later be constructed in shop. Another listed all the articles needed and got the boys to sign up for particular construction jobs. The suggestion was made that we draw on the large blackboard in the back of the room a plan of how the colony would look when completed, and a nuclear group was designated to start this work. Another blackboard was reserved for a colorful map.

Boys and girls began to merge into the same committees. Surprisingly enough, about seven boys wanted to cut, sew, and dress the colonists. Three pupils were placed in charge of patterns for men, women, and children, and they tramped back to their elementary school that afternoon to visit a teacher in whose room they had once made some "interesting people."

The next morning I knew that my desk was no longer my own. It had transformed itself into stacks of patterns, materials, soft down, puffy, hairy stuffing, and mothers' discarded scraps for colonial innards. The distribution committee was carefully measuring our resources and a check-up committee was meticulously taking names of recipients and listing the types of colonists for which they would be responsible. Boys and girls came in with all sorts of hand-drawn, charcoal, and painted plans for the colony, several of which had been patiently made to scale. These were passed around and scrutinized, and the class decided on a composite of the three they liked best and selected several pupils to work on the final plan.

IT WAS delightfully unorthodox to sit by and watch the basic textbook for the course being

A junior high school teacher in Philadelphia describes a seventh-grade project, involving English, art, and shopwork, as well as social studies, in the study of early colonial life.

pushed into the category of an occasionally used reference book. Class reading varied all the way from exciting fictional accounts of the adventures of colonial children to poetry of the period and about the period, and to factual descriptions of colonial homes, food, furnishings, clothing, customs, superstitions, methods of punishment, and recreational pursuits. One of the most interesting extemporaneous activities in which we occasionally engaged was the unrehearsed dramatization of a phase of colonial life that fired the class's imagination. I remember how we first stumbled upon this activity. The class had been particularly thrilled by Roger Williams' courage. They had read about him extensively, and several pupils asked if they could show the class some particularly attractive illustrated books about him. After we had discussed his convictions, the opposition he encountered, and the events involved in his founding of Rhode Island, one of our boys stepped up to the front of the room with a comic book that carried a lively pictorial and verbal account of Roger Williams' life and hard times. He asked if parts could be assigned and if the class could dramatize the comic book version. We were immediately transported to Puritan days and a stirring performance was rendered.

When we reached approximately midpoint in the dramatization, I said, "Here . . . you have all your characters up front. Let's put the book aside and see how you would finish the story yourselves." Unhampered by the meagre script facilities, Puritans, Indians, and Roger himself completed the incident with such gusto and dramatic verve that it became our custom to extemporize colonial life when people, ideas, or incidents inspired us sufficiently. Characters would be listed on the board, the parts would be cast, and the play would go on! And I feel quite secure in maintaining that those brief vivid scenes will be reconstructed with pleasure many times in the minds of the boys and girls who created them.

Well, my English and social studies were following the little white lines of the blueprint that were subtly leading the way toward core curriculum. Even in my traditional classroom setup, with forty stationary desks and five bulky armchairs—and no room or facilities for real activities—I couldn't have told you even there where English began or where social studies ended. The sewing teacher, the shop teacher, the art teacher, and I, ruthlessly, but I hope psychologically, cut across subject matter lines. And the youngsters

demonstrated that Thorndike's laws of learning were not only valid but functionally inspiring.

As colonists' homes, wells, buckets, pillories, and hand-made colonial rugs developed into finished products, the need for a large table on which to set up the colony became pressingly apparent. The next time the principal visited us, the class made its formal request, and after selecting eight of my boys and personally testing their arm muscles amid a ripple of delighted laughter, the principal gave them permission to divest the social studies office of part of its standard equipment. They staggered back some minutes later under the weight of the largest table they could find.

Then began the painstaking but joyful task of erecting the colony as piece after piece reached completion. The class was ever proud of the pupil who thought of having one colonial housewife lean out the window to clean her rug. And a fond industrious mother was seated with her child on her knee and her spinning wheel close at hand. The trees were simply large pine cones which a pupil brought from a previous New England trip and which the class painted a striking greenish blue.

WHEN the project was complete, the class sent a letter to a local teachers' magazine which uses pictures representing activities of this type. In response, a photographer visited us, and the class was able to take its oft-described colony home in magazine form to show their mothers and dads. One of our "newshawks" sent a description of the project to the school-activities column of a metropolitan newspaper, and an attractively mounted copy of the news account was later used along with our pictures when the model of the colony was placed on display in front of the school library. My boys and girls loved to pass the library when other classes were entering, just to see them react to the colony. On one such occasion:

"Say maybe they wouldn't love to pick up the people!"

"There ain't a kid in the school that ud hurt it though."

Teacher: "Ain't there?"

"No—eh—there—*isn't*, Miz Anneson!"

My children and I can laugh together, and I think we can build together, work together, and learn together. I guess it's because we've become more interested in the little white lines on the blueprint than in the bells that seem to ring every forty-five minutes in our school.

Notes and News

Central Ohio Association

At the spring meeting of the Social Studies Association of Central Ohio the following officers were elected for the current school year: Hugh Laughlin, University School, Ohio State University, president; Freida Boge, Columbus, vice-president; and Alma Jagsch, Columbus, secretary-treasurer.

Missouri Council

The *Missouri Social Studies Bulletin* for October announced a meeting to be held at St. Louis on November 9, at which Samuel A. Johnson was to speak on "Learning from History." The *Bulletin* included articles by J. E. Wrench on "Challenge of the Future," and Archie W. Troelstrup on "Outline of Recent Economic Trends."

Elmer Ellis has returned to the University of Missouri as one of its vice-presidents, and on February 1 will assume the deanship of the College of Arts and Sciences.

Julian C. Aldrich, now associate professor of education at New York University, has been succeeded as secretary-treasurer of the Missouri Council by W. Francis English. Other officers are Gordon E. Wesner, Kansas City, president, and Floyd Welch, St. Louis, vice-president.

Puget Sound Unit

The officers elected for the current school year of the Puget Sound Unit of the National Council for the Social Studies are: Ralph Rehbock, Seattle, president; and Cecilia Turner, Seattle, secretary-treasurer.

Community Study

Community Living and the Elementary School is the title of the Twenty-Fourth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington (351 pages; \$2.00). This Yearbook realistically examines community life and the adaptations of the school curriculum to meet the needs of its young citizens. The Yearbook is divided into five parts as follows: Part I, Relating Elementary Education to Community Life; II, Enriching the Curriculum from Community Resources; III, Building Community Understanding of the

School; IV, Meeting New Community Needs; and V, Adventuring in School-Community Coordination.

The Canadian Council of Education for Citizenship, 166 Marlborough Avenue, Ottawa, has published a bulletin entitled *Community Centre* (116 pages; 50 cents). This publication stresses the development of community centers which will provide opportunities for all members of the community to participate actively in a wide range of activities, make their contribution to the social life and to art, music, drama, and sport, and express talents they may possess, and to gain from the talents of others. This bulletin describes such a community organization and contains many helpful suggestions.

The Road to Community Reorganization, a 32-page pamphlet, is the report of the Committee on Reorganization of Community Services of the Woman's Foundation, Incorporated, 10 East 40th Street, New York 16, from whom copies may be obtained on request. This pamphlet contains an analysis of community problems and makes specific recommendations for dealing with them.

Consumer Education

A series of teaching-learning units for secondary school students dealing with many aspects of consumer education, is being prepared by the Consumer Education Study of the National Association of Secondary School Principals (1201 Sixteenth St. N.W., Washington 6). The titles of the units now available are:

The Modern American Consumer. Introductory; includes for the teacher and pupil a statement on the nature and place of consumer education.

Learning to Use Advertising. A study of the consumer's stake in advertising as a medium of information.

Time on Your Hands. On the "consuming" of leisure time.

Investing in Yourself. A study of how the young person may use his resources effectively in securing an education, cultivating himself, and getting a start at his career.

Using Standards and Labels. Includes a study of testing and rating agencies and issues centering around mandatory grade labeling, as well as a practical guide to the use of existing labels on consumer goods.

The units average about 90 pages each and are priced at 25 cents for single copies. Discounts: 2-9 copies, 10 per cent; 10-99 copies, 25 per cent; 100 or more copies, 33 1/3 per cent.

New Contributing Members

Since the names were last listed in the April issue of *Social Education*, many additional names have been added to the current role of contributing members of the National Council for the Social Studies. These members have paid \$5.00 for their annual dues instead of the \$3.00 subscribing membership fee, although there is no difference in the privileges of such membership. The Officers and Directors of the National Council wish to express their appreciation to these contributing members for the additional and needed financial help which they have given. The new Contributing Members are: Clarence P. Denman, Taimi Lahti, John T. Greenan, C. W. Gamer, Fannie Fern Andrews, Walter E. Myer, Linferd A. Marquart, William B. Thomas, Mildred Goshon, Mary G. Kelty, Mary A. Wheeler, Howard R. Anderson, Arletta Cowan, Elinor Peterson, Andrew Petor, Marie E. Gerlen, Corliss Lamont, Mae Drescher, Elmer Ellis, Frankie Jones, Alice W. Spiesecke, Viola E. Peterson, George W. Hodgkins, Lillian R. Bouslough, Elaine Forsyth, Burr W. Phillips, J. B. Stokes, Charles H. Wesley, L. G. Griffin, M. T. Gregory, Rexie E. Bennett, Don E. Winne, Lewis W. Gilfoyle, Meribah Clark, Frank J. Smith, Stanley E. Dimond, Mary H. Rumsey, Earl W. Hildreth, Charles B. Kinney, Jr., Horace T. Morse, Harold Korey, Walker Brown, May Lee Denham, Eunice Johns, Howard White, Lelah Hess, Clara Thurber, Emma Trenk, Grace Ewy, Angie Wilson, Allen Y. King, Louis A. March, Clifton B. Worthen, Wilbur F. Murra, Lillie Danner, Cloyd W. Paskins, R. W. Cordier, Ethel Jane Powell, Robert G. Schmidt, Elizabeth Carey, Julia Emery, H. E. Nutter, Bertha C. Manchester, Stanley E. Geise, Queenie M. Bilbo, Jeanne Buckmaster, the Elgin Public Schools, Robert E. Keohane, P. A. Knowlton, Ruth West, Rhoda C. McRae, O. E. Geppert, George H. Slappey, Elizabeth T. Newell, the Western Reserve Academy, Margaret West, Mary C. Wilson, Lawrence Vander, C. C. Barnes, Ingeborg Highland, Mary H. Wilson, J. C. Hazelton, Lavone A. Hanna, I. R. DePencier, Paul Seehausen, Edith L. Berkett, Ruth Neuendorffer, William A. Hamm, Mary E. Byrd, Linwood Chase, H. C. Thomas, Florise Hunsucker, Clarence Fielstra, J. B. Kuhler, and Douglas S. Ward.

In Educational Periodicals

School Life, the monthly journal of the U. S. Office of Education, resumed publication in

October, replacing *Education for Victory* which, for more than three years, appeared twice a month with emphasis on the role of education in wartime. The October issue of *School Life* includes "A World Organization for Peace" by Herbert J. Abraham, Division of Public Liaison, Department of State. It also reprints the Draft Proposals for an Educational and Cultural Organization, the basis of the current effort at London to draft a final constitution for the Organization. Other articles of special interest to social studies teachers deal with citizenship education and "Pan American Club Activities." Subscription is one dollar a year, through the Superintendent of Documents, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25.

The *American Political Science Review* for October includes a 58-page symposium on "The United Nations: Peace and Security." Clyde Eagleton of New York University contributes a first-hand account of "The Charter Adopted at San Francisco," with illuminating sidelights and commentary. Francis O. Wilcox of the University of Louisville discusses "The Yalta Voting Formula," with attention to attacks upon it and to the amending process and veto power of each of the great nations. Leland M. Goodrich of the World Peace Foundation deals with provisions for the "Pacific Settlement of Disputes," William T. R. Fox of the Institute of International Studies, Yale University, with "Collective Enforcement of Peace and Security," and Huntington Gilchrist, of New York City, with "Colonial Questions at the San Francisco Conference." Each of the authors had special responsibilities at San Francisco for the aspects of the Charter about which he writes.

The *Journal* of the National Education Association carries three short articles in October describing the activities of "The NEA at the San Francisco Conference," commenting on the tasks of "The London Conference on Education and Cultural Organization," and pointing out the close and important relationships developing between "The United Nations and You." In addition Edward G. Olsen contributes "Teachers Study International Issues"—issues relating to airways, foreign trade, the form of world organization, and an international office of education. A one-page "Guide to the United Nations" lists publications and audio-visual aids of value to teachers and pupils.

The September issue of the *School Executive* gives much attention to the San Francisco Conference and international organizations. The

United Nations Charter is summarized and the organization of the United Nations diagrammed. Suggestions for study and discussion are included. "Courses for World Citizens" at Chattanooga are described. The role of education and educators at San Francisco and in the United Nations organization is described.

The *Foreign Policy Reports*, published twice a month by the Foreign Policy Association, Inc. (22 East 38th Street, New York 16. \$5.00 a year; 25 cents a copy) continue to provide invaluable background for study of international affairs and current events. The June 1 issue by Winifred N. Hadsel, concerns "Political Currents in Liberated Europe"; the June 15 issue, by Bruno Foa, "Economic Trends in Liberated Europe"; July 1, by Grant S. McClellan, "Palestine and America's Role in the Far East"; July 15, by Vera Micheles Dean, "The San Francisco Conference—With Text of Charter"; August 1, by Blair Bolles, "Roosevelt's Foreign Policy"; August 15, by Phillip C. Jessup, "The International Court of Justice of the United Nations—with Text of Statute"; September 1, by L. S. Stavrianos, "Greece: The War and Aftermath"; September 15, by William C. Johnstone, "Future of Japanese Mandated Islands"; and October 1, by Walter Wilgus, "Economic Outlook for the Philippines."

The *Far Eastern Quarterly* for August lists and comments upon "Outstanding Recent Books on the Far East," selected by eighteen specialists and compiled by Meribeth E. Cameron. Many of the titles are specialized, but others are of interest to teachers of world or modern history. The same issue also includes a list of "Recent Pamphlet Materials on Eastern Asia," compiled by Dr. Cameron. A special number on the Philippines appeared in February.

The *Mississippi Valley Historical Review* for September carries "The American Land Grant Legend in American History Texts," by Robert S. Henry, assistant to the president of the Association of American Railroads, Washington, D. C. Two sentences from the conclusion of the 24-page article may be quoted: "The net result of the treatment of the land grant transaction as a whole is to present to the student a picture of a wastrel Uncle Sam scattering his substance with reckless extravagance, instead of the much more nearly correct picture of a canny landowner using part of his holdings to increase immeasurably the value of the rest, not as a gift but on terms which constituted a bargain shrewder than he realized" (p. 189); and "Al-

most without exception, however, the history textbooks have failed to develop this major and essential fact that, whatever may have been its shortcomings, the land grant policy touched off national and individual energies which in a few short years accomplished the greatest engineering, construction, and colonization project ever undertaken up to that time, a project which transformed the West from a wilderness to a civilized community and welded the nation into one" (p. 193).

The Teachers' Section of the *Review* usually includes one short article, numerous news items, and some book reviews. In the March issue the article was "Clio and the Camera," a treatment of the value of slidefilms, by Clayton S. Ellsworth of the College of Wooster. In October the article is "Social and Personal Values of American History," by Lucile Gustafson of the John R. Buchtel High School, Akron.

Philip D. Jordan of Miami University, for several years the editor of "The Teachers' Section," is now succeeded by Joe Patterson Smith of Illinois College.

In "The Military Mind and Peacetime Training," in *Progressive Education* for October, Arthur E. Morgan, former president of Antioch College and director of TVA, warns that "Enactment of compulsory peacetime training would profoundly alter our national tradition. It would deeply affect the American system of education. It would make great changes in the whole structure of our national life. It therefore is imperative that the questions of the enactment and content of such a program shall have the full and careful deliberations of the American people. Without such consideration, some of the best qualities of American life may be endangered" (p. 28). The author is especially opposed to the West Point type of training; "West Point education works to kill originality" (p. 29). Regular army opposition to democracy, army discouragement of initiative, and tendencies to indoctrinate with its own attitudes are also cited as objections to a type of training that would work against American traditions.

In *Clearing House* for September Leona Weier of Grosse Point Senior High School, describes a successful effort to stimulate "Pupil Participation in U. S. History Class."

In the *School Review* for October Kenneth J. Rehage of the Laboratory School, University of Chicago, discusses the principles that should govern the organization of "Social Studies in a Junior High School Program."

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Leonard B. Irwin

Problems Abroad

In spite of the formation of the United Nations and of our fervent hopes for a brave new world, the survival of national sovereignty in its prewar intensity seems to be assured. With that assurance comes the certainty that the nations of Europe will once more quarrel over that perennial problem—national boundaries. The only hope for future peace seems to lie in the ability of the world organization to prevent boundary differences from reaching the fighting point. As was the case after World War I, Americans need to review their knowledge of European geography if they are to watch developments with any comprehension. *European Jigsaw—An Atlas*, by Samuel Van Valkenburg (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38 Street, New York 16. 25 cents) is an admirable brief guide to the whole subject of European boundary disputes. It provides short but explicit summaries of the points at issue in twenty-five disputed boundary areas, ranging from Finland to Syria, and from Northern Ireland to the Curzon Line. The historical basis of the disputes is presented, together with the chief reasons why these particular sections are involved as a result of World War II. With each of the 25 chapters a full-page map is provided, showing in clear black-and-white detail the essential features of the boundary in question, and the historical changes which have taken place concerning it. The pamphlet ends with a chapter by C. Grove Haines on political factors in boundary making.

African Challenge: The Story of the British in Tropical Africa (British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. Free) is a most attractive and interesting addition to a pamphlet library of geography. Although it is confined to the British colonization of Africa, that nation's predominance in the continent makes the story of British activity a fair summary of African history. The opening chapter reviews the exploration of the continent. Then follows the story of the African slave trade and its abolition. Some 14 pages are devoted to the account of the development of British government in Africa, the coming of the railways, the work of Cecil Rhodes, and the imperialistic

rivalry of the major European powers for shares in the continent. One of the most interesting sections describes the work of the British government in bettering the conditions of the natives, and gives a picture of the ways in which science and education are being used in the more progressive parts of Africa. There is also a brief section on the nature of British political rule in the colonies. The booklet is very suitable for high school classes. There are many excellent drawings and two maps.

Another attractive and worthwhile pamphlet issued by the same agency is *Victory in Burma*, which recounts the story of the great military operations in that area. The account is interesting, and the many photographs and maps give the booklet special value to school classes.

The British Information Services have also published *A Picture of India*, by Edwin Haward, who has been active in Far Eastern affairs for most of his life. The author undertakes to present in very brief compass a survey of some of the aspects of the Indian problem. His review of the political problem, past and present, seems quite impersonal and unbiased, and confines itself to a statement of the principal events that have taken place in the long controversy, down to the presentation and rejection of the Cripps Proposals in 1942. The chapters on the Indian nation, and the structure of government, which often appears most bewildering to the Westerner, are well-presented. Other sections deal with social welfare, industry, and the war in India. Two pages of statistics about India conclude the booklet. It should prove a worthwhile hour's reading to anyone wishing a concise survey of Indian conditions.

A leaflet entitled *UNRRA in Outline and Up-To-Date* may be obtained upon request from the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (1344 Connecticut Avenue, Washington). It provides a brief summary of the nature, purposes, and work of the organization.

A very handy reference manual for anyone having occasion to read or work in the field of international relations is *Guide to United Nations and Allied Agencies* (United Nations Information Office, 610 Fifth Avenue, New York 20. Free). About 50 agencies of the United Nations

are treated in this manual, and it is probable that in time there will be more. Accordingly the present booklet, issued in April, 1945, is in loose-leaf form to permit the insertion of new sheets which will be published from time to time. Among the 50 organizations are several which are frequently in the news, such as UNRRA, the United Nations War Crimes Commission, and the Allied Advisory Council for Italy. The information given for each agency includes its official address, the member nations, a list of their representatives, the circumstances of its creation, its purpose and activities, a list of its reports and publications, and a bibliography of references concerning it.

A worthwhile booklet on the United Nations Charter is *The United Nations Charter: What Was Done at San Francisco*, by Clark M. Eichelberger (American Association for the United Nations, 45 East 65 Street, New York 21. 10 cents). In its first thirty pages the author presents a simple and readable summary of the Charter in terms which make the booklet suitable for use in study groups or school classes. The text of the Charter follows so that reference can easily be made to the actual wording of the document.

Germany and the Post-War World (National Opinion Research Center, University of Denver, Denver, Colorado. 50 cents) is another of NORC's fascinating reports on what the American people think about some public question. This one, more elaborate than most, fills 60 pages with the popular responses to a wide variety of questions about the German people and their future. The polling took place several months before the surrender of Germany, and it would be most interesting to know what, if any, change in opinion has taken place as a result of several months of peace. The questions asked for opinions on the proper treatment of the German people, and their leaders; the use of German forced labor for reconstruction; the problem of reparations; the political reorganization of Germany; Germany's proper place in a world organization; and many other phases of the total subject. As with other NORC reports, much of the interest derives from the quoted sample replies and the analysis of reasons given for the affirmative and negative responses. It is impossible to summarize the general nature of majority

opinions on such a variety of questions, but a majority of the American people apparently believe that the United States will fight another war within fifty years. Whether this attitude of pessimism is an asset or a liability in the actual prevention of war is a matter for psychologists to decide.

Education

For anyone interested in available reading matter on intercultural relations, *Publications on Intercultural Education for School and Community* (Bureau for Intercultural Education, 119 West 57th Street, New York 19. Free) will be a useful bibliography. It lists over 100 of the best items in this field from all sources, and includes books, pamphlets, periodicals, and reading lists. Each item is annotated.

Also in the field of intercultural education is a set of mimeographed booklets called *Making Democracy Work* (National Conference of Christians and Jews, Inc., 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16. 35 cents). The set is designed as basic materials for leaders of group discussions in churches, clubs, and schools. The pamphlets give worthwhile information on the religious customs and beliefs of Jews, Protestants, and Roman Catholics, and on the cultural contributions of the various races, nationalities, and creeds that make up our population. There are suggestions for group activities and reading lists.

From the Department of Supervision and Curriculum Development, NEA (1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6) come three mimeographed booklets. *List of Teaching and Learning Materials*, by L. Thomas Hopkins, Florence Stratemeyer, and Maxie N. Woodring (10 cents) is a bibliography of recent courses of study prepared by city and state departments of education. All subjects and grades are included. *Films Interpreting Children and Youth*, by Margaret Hampel, Edgar Dale, and Aileen Robinson (15 cents) gives an annotated list of films illustrating child development and learning processes. They are particularly suitable for teacher-training institutions, faculty meetings, or parent-teacher groups. *Selected Bibliography on Elementary Education and Related Fields*, by Walter A. Anderson, E. T. McSwain, and Helene Vail (25 cents) is, as indicated, a list of recent material on many phases of elementary education. The items are not annotated.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Motion Picture News

To assist schools interested in the best handling of films, a booklet on *How to Run a Film Library* has been prepared by the Director of School Relations, Encyclopaedia Britannica Films Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6. Copies are 50 cents each.

It's been a long time since we have seen as complete a catalog of educational films as that now available from Bell and Howell Co., 1801-1815 Larchmont Avenue, Chicago 13. It comes in a folder-binder, has a thumbnail index, an alphabetical index, and gives sales price and age-level data.

International Theatrical and Television Corp., 25 West 45th Street, New York 19, is offering \$10,000 in prizes for the best amateur 16-mm. motion picture submitted to it before July 1, 1946. The picture may be on any topic. The film may be sound or silent, color or black and white. Write for a copy of the rules.

The House I Live In is an RKO picture now showing in many theaters. Starring Frank Sinatra, this 10-minute short drives home in an effective and appealing fashion the need for inter-racial and religious understanding and harmony. Worth inquiring about. See your local theater manager.

Do you know about "Film and Radio Guides"? Published nine times a year, these guides give information concerning current theatrical films and radio programs. Guides are 5 cents per copy from Educational and Recreational Guides, 172 Renner Avenue, Newark 8, New Jersey.

A new series of films is listed in the catalog issued by Simmel-Meservey, Suite 316, 9538 Brighton Way, Beverly Hills, California. "The Capital Cities Series" treats each of the 48 states in color.

Recent 16-mm. Releases

Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, 405 West 117th Street, New York.

Watchtower for Tomorrow. 15 minutes, sound; free. Explains Dumbarton Oaks plan.

Castle Films, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Lifeline of the Nation. 20 minutes, sound; free. Motion picture story of the American railroads in their battle on the home front.

The Alaskan Highway. 12 minutes, sound; free. Completing the great road to Alaska.

Trees for Tomorrow. 18 minutes, sound; free. Modern methods of conservation and forest management.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago 6.

Using the Classroom Film. 20 minutes, sound; sale: \$85, rental: \$4. Approved procedure in teaching.

Look Magazine, 511 Fifth Avenue, New York.

Home Town, U.S.A. 20 minutes, sound; rental: \$3. Community life and government in a small town.

National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th Street, New York 20.

Three To Be Served. 27 minutes, sound; free. How management must serve customers, workers, and investors.

Office of War Information, Bureau of Motion Pictures, Washington 25.

Valley of the Tennessee. 28 minutes, sound; small service fee. Reclamation through planning.

Steel Town. 17 minutes, sound; service fee. Processing of steel, labor problems, town life.

Official Films, 625 Madison Avenue, New York 22.

F.D.R. 20 minutes, sound; sale: \$37.50. The public career of Franklin D. Roosevelt from 1910 to his death.

Pan American World Airways Inc., 135 East 42nd Street, New York 17.

Mexican Fiesta. 20 minutes, sound, color; free. Trip to Mexico City.

Yucatan Holiday. 20 minutes, sound, color; free. Travelog to the Yucatan peninsula.

Guatemala Rainbow Vacation. 20 minutes, sound, color; free. From Brownsville, Texas, to Guatemala City.

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By Air to the Land of the Incas. 40 minutes, sound, color; free. Panama, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, Argentina.

By Air to Argentina. 20 minutes, sound, color; free. Travel picture of Argentina.

Princeton Film Center, 55 Mountain Avenue, Princeton, New Jersey.

Flight Log. 25 minutes, sound; 50 cents. From Kitty Hawk to Tokyo, the story of modern aviation.

Radio Notes

The Junior Town Meeting League, 400 South Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio, has issued its handbook, *Make Youth Discussion Conscious*. This booklet treats discussion techniques for school forums, class discussions, and youth groups. In 32 pages Allen King and Keith Tyler have made pertinent suggestions well worth reading. Copies are free. Membership in Junior

Town Meeting League is free. Over 2,631 members are now enrolled. To join simply send in your name and get on the mailing list.

The *Cavalcade of America*, NBC, 8:00 P.M., EST, Mondays, is now heard over a network of 142 stations. Worth recommending to high school students.

Have you written to Columbia Broadcasting System, 485 Madison Avenue, New York 22, for your copy of the teachers' manual for "American School of the Air"? It's free.

Also from CBS may be obtained a copy of a pocket book *From Pearl Harbor Into Tokyo*, as broadcast by war correspondents.

Library of Congress Photographs

For years the Library has had important collections of documentary photographs in its custody, and steps are now being taken to make them better known and more easily and widely available. Included in the collection now indexed by subjects is the photographic survey of the American people made between 1935 and 1943 by a staff of famous photographers working under the direction of Roy E. Stryker, first under the sponsorship of the Farm Security Administration and later of the Office of War Information. Both negatives and prints have been transferred to the Library of Congress and may be seen at the Photograph Section, Room 1405 Auditor's Building, Fourteenth Street and Independence Avenue, Washington. This project sent photographers into every part of the country to make records of the land, natural resources, the towns and the cities, the people in them, their homes, their work, their misery and joys, amusements and relaxations—in short, of almost every manifestation of American life.

The entire survey has been microfilmed and positive copies on film may be purchased at 6 cents per foot. The images are small, only $\frac{3}{4} \times 1$ inch, and there are approximately 10 per foot of 35-mm. film, but they can be viewed easily in any of several "reading machines" which enlarge the image to its original size. Captions and original negative numbers appear on the film, with brief descriptions of each lot. The purpose of this microfilm is to enable persons at a distance to become familiar with the content of the collection and to order publication prints by their negative numbers. Many firms and individuals purchase only those lots of film which cover subject matter of interest to them. Prints from the original negatives are available for purchase through the Library's Photodupli-

cation Service at 50 cents for each 8x10 copy.

The *Index of Microfilms, Series A. Lots 1-1737*, a mimeographed, double-column, subject index of 26 pages, serves as an aid to purchasing films, or, for those who already have many lots, as an aid to finding the lot desired for viewing. The Index is available to those interested upon application to the Information and Publications Office, The Library of Congress, Washington 25.

New Apparatus

Two outstanding advantages are claimed for the most recent opaque projector to be placed on the market. It is, states the manufacturer, low in price and light in weight. Produced by the Charles Beseler Company, 243 East 23rd Street, New York 10, this machine projects enlarged images of pictures in books, magazines, on postcards, and the like. It is light; it weighs but 11 lbs. It is inexpensive, selling for \$29.50. Its performance is fair. It has a 300-watt lamp and consequently requires a thoroughly darkened room for satisfactory projection. Its image up to six foot square is sufficiently sharp for most purposes. The standard price for opaque projectors has long been \$100. These machines are rather bulky, weighing around 40 lbs. The new Beseler projector is *not* as well built as the more expensive machines, it does not have as efficient lenses, but it does make available a fairly satisfactory projector at a price which many schools can afford.

Schools interested in surplus photographic equipment and supplies to be released by the government should write to the Treasury Department for a copy of the *Surplus Reporter*, which lists the goods ready for release. Then contact your nearest Regional Office of Surplus Property. The Regional Office will give price and location of the material. Prices are payable in cash and material must be removed within 10 days of sale. Schools are warned to inspect this surplus property thoroughly before purchase. Most of the standard projectors are coming back on the market, together with some new brands.

Free and Inexpensive Materials

Color Crafts for Everyone is a book of handicraft projects free to teachers from Rit Products Corporation, 1401 West Jackson Blvd., Chicago 7. Several projects of interest to social studies teachers are included. One deals with constructing a model home with landscaping. Another describes how to build a miniature theater.

The Rit Products Company (see address above) also distributes a free booklet on *How to Make Costumes for School Pageants and Plays*.

For a list of free and inexpensive teaching aids on aviation write to Air Age Education Research, 100 East 42nd Street, New York 17.

A full-color booklet called *A Study of Cereal Grains*, a wheat kernel wall chart, suggested classroom projects, and a one act play on cereals are free from Ralston Purina Co., Checkerboard Square, St. Louis 2.

A kit of teaching material on aviation including maps, color prints, postcards, timetables, and the like, are sent free by United Air Lines, School and College Service, Continental Illinois Bank Bldg., 231 LaSalle Street, Chicago 4. When requesting material indicate the educational level on which it is to be used.

A valuable booklet on *Opaque Projection* will be mailed free from American Optical Co., Scientific Instrument Division, Buffalo 11, New York.

A picture chart on the history of radio, "Radio's Silver Anniversary," will be mailed free from School Service, Westinghouse Electric Corp., Pittsburgh 30, Pennsylvania.

The American Petroleum Institute, 50 West 5th Street, New York 20, has two charts of value, "Petroleum Marketing" and "Petroleum Drilling and Production."

"New Story of Light" is a large wall chart on the history of lighting. Ten cents from General Electric Co., Advertising Division, Nela Park, Cleveland 12, Ohio.

A "Coal Products Chart" is yours for the asking from Keppers Co., Inc., Pittsburgh 19, Pennsylvania.

"The Story of Food, How Man Has Preserved It Through the Ages," is told in a series of wall charts free from American Can Co., 230 Park Avenue, New York 17.

A full-color, historical wall display, "Highway Transportation on Parade," is 10 cents from Greyhound Information Center, 113 St. Clair Avenue, N. E., Cleveland 14, Ohio.

A list of free and inexpensive materials available to teachers of geography has been compiled by A. G. Simmons, State Teachers College, Fitchburg, Massachusetts. Copies will be mailed to interested teachers on request.

Write to National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th Street, New York 20, for a free

copy of *Bibliography of Economic and Social Study Material*. It lists films, booklets, and other materials on American industry.

A list of pictorial exhibits on the Soviet Union may be obtained from the National Council of American-Soviet Friendship Inc., 114 East 32nd Street, New York 16. Included in the listing are photographs, posters, cartoons, maps, and atlases. These materials are available on a rental basis.

A free booklet on *Petroleum in the World* may be obtained from Harrison Publishing Co., 32 South Fourth Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.

Color Slides

A new list of 2x2 color slides on China has been sent to us by Munday and Collins, 814 West 8th Street, Los Angeles 14. Complete sets of slides, 35 to a set, with teachers' guides, cost \$17.50 in cardboard mounts. Mounted under glass they are \$21.00.

Helpful Articles

Brown, James W. "Case for a Teaching Aids Development Center," *School Executive*, LXV:52-54, October, 1945. A tip from the Navy concerning the need for research in teaching materials.

De Bernardis, Amo. "A Case for Solomon," *Journal of Association for Education by Radio*, V:29-30, October, 1945. A case for the coordination of audio-visual aids.

Ferrill, Margaret S. "Mason's Materials Bureau," *School Executive*, LXV:55, October, 1945. How Mason, Georgia, set up and conducted a Teachers Materials Bureau.

Gibson, Raymond C. "Beginning Geography—Foundation for International Understanding," *See and Hear*, I:16-20, September, 1945. Vitalizing the geography lesson.

Hayes, Nina. "Our Model Village," *Grade Teacher*, CXIII:36, 99, October, 1945. An excellent project for classes studying community life.

Houten, Edna M. "Try This for Attention," *American Childhood*, XXXI:11, November, 1945. Suggestions for utilizing blackboard illustrations in primary social studies.

Keeler, Amy E. "How We Made a Pilgrim Frieze," *Instructor*, LV:37, November, 1945. A primary grade activity.

Lee, Jean M. "Classroom Use of the Recorder," *School Executive*, LXV:59, October, 1945. Some suggestions for getting the most out of school recording apparatus.

Schreiber, Robert E. "Perfecting Projection Procedure for Educational Film Showings," *Educational Screen*, XXIV:277-278, September, 1945. The "why" and "how" of film projection for instructional purposes.

Trenholme, Kingsley. "Coordinated Audio-Visual Aids," *See and Hear*, I:11-15, September, 1945. Using the proper aid for the proper purpose.

Webber, Vera J. "Mask Making," *Grade Teacher*, LXIII:22-23, October, 1945. Directions for an activity popular with classes studying Indian life.

Book Reviews

PRELUDE TO INVASION: AN ACCOUNT BASED UPON OFFICIAL REPORTS BY HENRY L. STIMSON. Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1944. Pp. iii, 332. \$3.25.

Theodore Roosevelt once remarked that Americans seemed to learn only through catastrophe. The pages of *Prelude to Invasion* bear out Roosevelt's contention. When the Japanese struck at Pearl Harbor, the United States was poorly prepared for war. The isolationists and pacifists had lulled many Americans to sleep with their statement that "This was not our war" and that "The United States was in no danger." Quickly, after December 7, 1941, the United States geared its great industrial machine to war production and in the next three and a half years this productive capacity was to be the basis of the defeat of the Axis powers.

Prelude to Invasion is a collection of the reports on the progress of the war that Secretary of War Stimson issued at frequent intervals from December 11, 1941, to June 8, 1944. These reports furnish us with a useful record of the military phases of the war from the depth of despair in the first months after the Japanese attack through to the time when the United Nations assumed the offensive in North Africa, on the Solomon Islands, in Sicily and Italy, at Stalingrad, and in China.

Prelude to Invasion, fortunately, is more than a review of the fighting done by the United States. It also describes something of the achievements of all the United Nations forces. Secretary Stimson was unstinting in his praise for the contribution of the gallant Red Army in rolling Hitler's forces back across Russia after the disastrous German defeat at Stalingrad.

This will be a useful reference book on the course of the war until future research and writing can furnish more inside information for the public. It contains the details on casualties at various stages of the war, and it lists the various army and navy units engaged in specific battles. It is written in an undistinguished style, and its lack of an index will hamper its reference value somewhat.

WALTER JOHNSON

University of Chicago

WORLD ECONOMIC SURVEY, 1942/44. By the Economic, Financial and Transit Department of

the League of Nations. Geneva, 1945. Distributed in the United States by International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, New York. Pp. 299. \$3.00.

The eleventh World Economic Survey published by the League of Nations differs from its predecessors mainly by dealing with a two year, rather than a one year, period. The time covered extends between the autumn of 1942 and the close of 1944. In a few cases the data include the early weeks of 1945. The preface to the volume states that "a general picture of conditions in selected countries or groups of countries is given in Chapter 1. The following chapters include more detailed information on production, consumption, finance, prices, trade and transport, each subject being treated separately."

As its title indicates, this publication of the League is a general survey of recent economic history throughout the world; no exhaustive treatment is accorded to any particular subject within a given country. However, since this issue is describing a world at war, considerable attention is paid to the controls which governments have established over their respective economies, and some mention is made of international arrangements between members of the United Nations. Particularly noticeable is the emphasis given to the difficult problems which nearly all countries have encountered with respect to food. An entire section of the chapter on Production and nearly all of the chapter on Consumption and Rationing are concerned with food.

Due to the war the accuracy and completeness of the statistical material in this issue of the *Survey* have suffered and the data are less satisfactory than in previous years. Because of the gaps the reader will find it more difficult to make comparisons between countries. Data on the Allied nations is naturally superior, except in the case of Russia, to the information of doubtful reliability available on the Axis powers and their satellites. While text material is presented describing the economic situation in Russia, the statistics on that country are disappointingly incomplete.

EDMUND DE S. BRUNNER, JR.

New York City

THE LADDER OF HISTORY. By Upton Close and Merle Burke. New York: Macmillan, 1945. Pp. xiii, 825. \$2.80.

The problem of teaching the history of world civilizations to secondary school students is one of the most difficult faced by the teacher. The limitation of available time to one year, the vast accumulation of knowledge to be surveyed, new and pressing world problems, and the confusion and conflict between conservative scholarship and the newer theories about the purposes of social studies instruction, have all combined to make the teacher's task truly baffling. Teachers are conscious of the fact that we need a new direction, new guides, and different kinds of subject matter for this important area.

This text is an attempt to make the problem of the teacher and pupil less confusing and more purposeful. Its fundamental philosophy seems to be to make the modern world understandable in the light of history. The authors attempt to do this by surveying the chronological progression of man from the early river valley civilizations to World War II. This is done in six units that take up the first 326 pages. Part II is a topical organization, composed of nine units, in which the story of man's problems and progress in various fields are treated. Religion, government and law, language and writing, learning and science, the search for beauty, tools and production, transportation and communication, the story of war, and the movement toward world order are the topics that are treated. Thus the authors have attempted to fit the story of man's progression in these various fields into the general sweep of world history, as have several texts written in the past few years.

The authors have included some emphases that are somewhat unique. They have been very careful to keep before the reader the connection between historical events of each age and the world of today. The whole emphasis is to explain how the modern world is the product of past ages and why the world of the present moment is perplexed by its pressing problems. They have been able to do this in general in a most adroit and satisfying manner. Their viewpoint is refreshing, realistically optimistic, and dominated by a vigorous belief in man's ability to use his intelligence to bring a reasonable amount of order out of chaos.

The learning aids, summaries, questions, and limited bibliographies are, on the whole, good. The book is not overburdened with them as are many of the newer texts. The list of readings is

outstanding. Emphasis is given to good fiction, lively accounts, and the best literature that appeals to young people, rather than citations to other text and source materials. The illustrations, the graphic materials, and maps are satisfactory.

Like any text, this one has weaknesses. Although China, Russia, and India have a conspicuous place, Canada and South America get only the briefest treatment. In some sections the treatment is not without some prejudices. Many teachers may feel that the questions at the end of each section are very ordinary in quality. Something had to be left out and often rich and interesting information on a country, an epoch, or an individual is not to be found. Since a textbook is an outline, this criticism should not be taken as a serious indictment. Geographic information is surprisingly meager. Although the style of the book is attractive and vigorous, there are parts that sometimes lack clarity. Sometimes the vocabulary is not well chosen.

The reviewer is of the opinion that this text will be a popular and a useful one. Its general plan and purposes are in line with the interests of the modern world. It has a consistent philosophy and viewpoint. It attempts to make history vital, meaningful, and purposeful.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH

University of Missouri

THE ASIAN LEGACY AND AMERICAN LIFE. Essays arranged and edited by Arthur E. Christy. New York: John Day, 1945, 276. \$3.50.

The increased attention now being paid to the teaching of Far Eastern history in our secondary schools has revealed a shortage of teaching aids and of qualified teachers. Publishers, both of texts and of pamphlets, have hurried to remedy the first deficiency. The second is less easily resolved. Superior teaching of the history, geography, and literature of the East can come only from teachers with a real depth of knowledge in their subject. A scarcity of these teachers, together with a lack of the material to which poorly qualified but industrious teachers can turn, are the two major difficulties under which our schools are initiating their new courses in the civilization of the Orient.

Thus the present volume, a study of the Asiatic influences on American life, is assured of a timeliness and a significance by virtue of its material. Fortunately, it is also scholarly and suggestive; it affords an introduction to a dozen fascinating by-ways for the intellectually curious

teacher or the student with more than usual interest to follow.

The book opens with a long introductory essay by the editor—"The Sense of the Past." It is doubtful if a prospective teacher in the Oriental area can find elsewhere such a concise, scholarly, and balanced survey of the cultural contacts between East and West. Two quotations from the conclusion of this essay indicate that Dr. Christy recognizes both the urge for international understanding and its importance if we are to produce a just and peaceful world:

So long as we can imagine, there will be recurrent turning to the Orient for the material satisfactions of this world, for literary themes and artistic design, for the foundations of utopias, and for passports to the cities of God. As mankind struggles for the brotherhood of men, the trend will be toward the integration of the individual in the unity of the world's experience.

The sense of the past is therefore plain. The task of international democracy is to underwrite the dream with a worldwide political organization. Any structure it might raise, however, will be but a house of cards if it is not cemented with knowledge of the interdependence of peoples and their contributions to the common heritage of mankind.

Eight chapters follow the introductory essay, each written by an authority in his field, and Pearl Buck has written a brief but understanding conclusion. The titles of the chapters will indicate the scope of the volume: "The Orient and Western Music"; "The Orient and Western Art and Culture"; "Our Agricultural Debt to Asia"; "Ties That Bind"; "The Orient and Contemporary Poetry"; "Transcendentalism in Contemporary Literature"; "Living Religions and a World Faith"; and "Understanding and Reunion: An Oriental Perspective."

To the practical minded person not especially interested in art, music, poetry, and comparative religions, the chapter on agriculture—a truly fascinating story of our past indebtedness to Asia as well as of the areas where future indebtedness is likely—will prove most interesting. However, few will fail to profit from a reading of the entire volume.

Those who love history, teacher and student alike, will have a field day when they turn to the thirty pages (in very fine print) of "Facts and Curiosa of the East-India Trade" which Dr. Christy has placed in the appendix. This reviewer has no space in which to describe this material; he can merely say Don't miss it.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

New York City

CITIZENSHIP IN OUR DEMOCRACY. By J. Cecil Parker, C. Perry Patterson, and Samuel B. McAlister. Boston: Heath, 1944. Pp. x, 363. \$1.20.

This junior high school civics book is a revision of a volume first published in 1939. Because neither a copy nor reviews of the earlier edition were available to this reviewer there is no attempt here to evaluate the present revision as such. Even the Preface fails to give any information on the matter. But this introductory word does merit careful reading because it makes clear at the outset the responsibilities of a teacher using such a book as *Citizenship in a Democracy*. Likewise it justifies the omission of reading lists and other study aids from the volume, save a few questions and activities of one kind or another at the end of each of the twenty-seven chapters.

These chapters are loosely grouped into five sections. The first deals somewhat concretely with the general problem of individual-group relationships; the second and third describe these relationships at work in social, economic, and political areas of American life; the fourth presents a necessarily superficial treatment of the development and meaning of the Constitution; and the fifth is an editorial-type discussion of American ideals. Apparently the three middle sections of the book are intended to illustrate and implement Parts One and Five, but these relationships are not always evident.

Although there are some helpful and interesting chapters such as those on health, social security, and conservation, all in all the authors have tried to deal too extensively with too many topics. They are forced by this type of treatment and a limited number of pages, set in a small format, to gloss over many areas of information absolutely essential to an understanding of the topics treated. Even in some chapters which are well packed with information, the style of writing does not always make the factual content vivid enough to serve as a background for evaluating our social scene.

The general tone of the volume is one of preaching rather than problem-raising. Pupils are frequently told what things citizens should be able to do but are seldom encouraged to think through ways of getting these things done. Instances of easy generalization and oversimplification, traceable in large part no doubt to space limitations, are possible sources of misconceptions, unless carefully qualified by the watchful teacher. Some of the omissions of fact in the

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printed text are cared for by photographs and other illustrations which are generally well selected, well documented, and well placed throughout the book. These and a rather complete index, with appended copies of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence, make this volume then a useful shelf reference when studying selected topics of junior high school civics.

KENNETH B. THURSTON

University School
Indiana University

UNTIL THEY EAT STONES. By Russell Brines. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1944. Pp. 340. \$3.00.

The criminal overconfidence which resulted in our almost fatal surprise at Pearl Harbor was based on ignorance of our enemy. As the war against Japan ends in the occupation of the Nipponese islands, Americans need to take precautions to prevent that same basic ignorance from costing us the fruits of our hard-won victory. As a people we still know very little about our enemies, and thus every authentic account of the Japanese or their policies is worthy of our

attention as we try to establish lasting peace.

The author of this book is a correspondent who has been in touch with Pacific affairs for more than ten years. He was in pre-Pearl Harbor Tokyo, and was assigned to the Japanese army during its undeclared war with Russia in the summer of 1939. Caught in Manila when it fell, Mr. Brines and his family were interned by the Japanese. Later allowed to go to Shanghai, the author after a few weeks of freedom was incarcerated there as a "political prisoner," and was finally reunited with his family on a Japanese exchange ship.

Until They Eat Stones is not only a well-written book; it also furnishes an interesting account of life under the Japanese conquerors; it contains many valuable commentaries on Japanese philosophy; its descriptions of various parts of the Far East are important antidotes for our national ignorance; its stories of mass inhumanity arouse our indignation; it is important current history. Any one of the above characteristics would justify the serious attention of the reading public.

This book has an even greater significance: it furnishes the best key we now have with which

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to unlock the mysteries of Japanese diplomacy and military policy. Japan was not preparing for immediate but for ultimate conquest. Only a firm national policy, predicated upon an informed and alert public opinion, will enable us to prevent her ultimate victory. Young Filipino children being taught the kinship of all Oriental peoples; Japanese "Catholics" preaching the community of interest between Catholicism and Shintoism; Japanese "Mohammedans" quietly spreading Tokyo's concern for the welfare of Mohammedanism, *from Mindanao southward; young Asiatics, of many races, formed into youth organizations of a fascist nature; social reorganization along Japanese lines (such as the "neighborhood associations"); a multiplicity of skillful diplomatic moves, for example: the announced intention "of relinquishing extraterritorial rights in China and returning to the Nanking government the foreign concessions and settlements" (fortunately offset, as far as our nation is concerned, by the repeal of the Chinese exclusion act), and the granting of "complete independence" to the Philippines—all of these are cleverly designed to prepare the way for victory in the next attempt. The stupidity and inhumanity of

the military has done much to offset these policies, but they are still dangerous.

The lesson that this valuable and significant book points is that it must become recognized by all Americans that our only hope of peace in Asia is to see to it that Japan, for at least a hundred years, lacks the power to make a second attempt.

RALPH ADAMS BROWN

U. S. Coast Guard

U. S. AVIATION IN WARTIME. Achievements and Progress as Reported by the Office of War Information. Washington: American Council on Public Affairs, 1944. Pp. 203. \$2.50; paper, \$2.00.

This book may be of interest to teachers and senior high school pupils who are particularly interested in aviation. The information presented derives from the Office of War Information, the Army Air Forces, Naval Air Transport Service, War Production Board, the Civil Aeronautics Authority, and the Air Transport Association. The book was written by members of the O.W.I. staff. They were assisted by specialists in aeronautics.

Nine brief chapters cover aviation from combat performance in 1942 through postwar probabilities. Of particular interest for a study of Air Age implications are the chapters concerned with army and navy air transport, the commercial airlines, public airways, and postwar probabilities. The initial chapters describe combat performances in 1942 and 1943. The technical developments mentioned will doubtless have profound effect upon peacetime civil aviation. The most colorful chapter, in the opinion of this reviewer, describes the Civilian Air Patrol. The CAP has rendered valuable service, and it is high time that the public become aware of the job done by these civilian volunteers.

Unfortunately the book is marred by a considerable number of typographical errors. The illustrations are of silhouette type and are fairly adequate. There is no index but this is not a serious omission in a book of this kind.

HALL BARTLETT

New York City

DESIGN FOR AMERICA, AN EDUCATIONAL EXPLORATION OF THE FUTURE OF DEMOCRACY. An American Education Fellowship Book by

Theodore Brameld. New York: Hinds, Hayden and Eldredge, 1945. Pp. 165. \$2.00.

This book is a noteworthy contribution to the growing literature on the study of contemporary problems in the high school. It goes beyond most previous work in this area by placing the major emphasis on the future planning of a "Design for America." Its purpose is to present a plan for senior high school teacher and students to use in studying the economic, political, social, and cultural trends since World War I, the problems of the present day, the goals and values we in America wish to achieve in the future, and to design a program of action which seems to offer the greatest promises of success for realizing them.

The book is based on an actual experiment in the high school of Floodwood, Minnesota, a small community with a population of about 750. Fifty-one students, about evenly divided between juniors and seniors and boys and girls; three teachers: social studies, English, and natural science; the school superintendent; and a co-operating instructor from the University of Minnesota participated actively in the project, which continued for two hours a day, five days a week, for four and a half months. The community and other teachers cooperated to a more limited extent. No effort is made to report the Floodwood experiment exactly; instead ideas for improvement which grew out of it are incorporated directly in the text.

The book has six chapters and an appendix. Chapter one, the introduction, presents the hypotheses on which the Floodwood project was based and gives an overview of it. Chapters two through six present a more detailed description of the project, including a syllabus based upon the one used by the teachers and students. The titles of the chapters are: Motivation and Orientation, Economic-Political Area, Art and Science, Education and Human Relations Areas, and Conclusions. The Appendix contains the results of a community survey, copies of evaluation instruments used in the project, a schedule of work for each period in the recommended program, and an appraisal of the project by two educational philosophers.

The chapter titles indicate the divisions into which the project was broken down for class study and activity. A variety of materials was used; there was some teacher-pupil planning; and such techniques as reading, interviews, excursions, lectures, discussion, and the like were employed, with an especially heavy emphasis on

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discussion. The evaluation was based on student and teacher appraisals, the results from the use of evaluation instruments, observation, and analysis. The chapter on "Conclusions" contains the report on the evaluation. Professor Brameld has been refreshingly frank in revealing the difficulties encountered and the negative factors in the project.

As has happened in other projects where an outside agency works with a selected group of teachers within a school, problems of teacher relations developed. Materials were limited, procedures inadequately applied, and the evaluation was hurried. Nevertheless teachers and students agreed that the project was of considerable value and the quantitative results from the evaluation instruments give indication of fair success. As the authors point out, groups who repeat the project in other schools can benefit from this initial experience and overcome many of the difficulties that were encountered in this first run over the course.

It is unfortunate that more time was not taken in working with the teachers in an in-service education program before the class work was started. Another weakness was that previous experience with the problem-solving and pupil-teacher planning techniques was not utilized effectively. No reference was made in the syllabus to the *Thirteenth Yearbook* of the National Council for the Social Studies, "Teaching Critical Thinking in the Social Studies," or to the "Problems in American Life Series," which contains resource units in several of the areas considered. From the point of view of technique the present reviewer feels that not enough time is devoted in the recommended plan to the collection, organization, and interpretation of data in proportion to the problems studied and the amount of discussion suggested. In addition not enough emphasis is given to motivation and to concluding activities. In the program as set up there is considerable danger of indigestion and superficial generalization.

Despite the above weaknesses, which the author recognizes in large part, *Design for America* makes a highly significant contribution to general education. It is well written and edited and presents a clear picture of an important and practical project. The description of the Floodwood experience and the syllabus are sufficiently detailed so that groups of teachers in schools all over the country can repeat the experiment. The book should be read widely by teachers and administrators and discussed in faculty meetings and teacher education classes

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and workshops. Teacher education institutions should work with schools in their areas on similar projects and report their experiences to the profession. It is through forward looking and tradition modifying projects of this sort that the cake of custom in social education can be broken and a more effective development of that social competence so greatly needed in the modern world achieved.

I. JAMES QUILLEN

Stanford University

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Index to Volume IX

SOCIAL EDUCATION is indexed in *Education Index*

I. Authors and Titles

- ANDERSON, VIVIENNE. American Colonists—1945, 366.
 ARNESON, BEN A. Trends in the Teaching of Government, 350.
 BARTON, WILLIAM B. Management and Labor in the Social Studies Program, 77.
 BAUGH, KATHERYNE E. Revising the World History Course, 117.
 BOZEMAN, ADDA. An Education for Peace: A Model United Nation's Peace Conference, 359.
 BREINAN, ALEXANDER. Some Lessons Drawn from John Dewey, 207.
 BUCKWALTER, W. ROY. Labor's Need of a Public Relations Program, 73.
 CAMERON, MERIBETH E. Young Americans Must Learn About Asia, 165.
 CARRIE, RENÉ ALBRECHT. The German Problem Can Be Simple, 355.
 CARTER, FLOELLA KELLEY. The Wesley Report on American History: A Classroom Teacher Speaks, 16.
 COHN, FANNIA M. Workers' Education and the Social Studies, 157.
 COOK, LLOYD ALLEN. What We Face in Family Living, 108.
 CORDIER, RALPH W. The Social Studies in Perspective, 29.
 DARLING, EDWARD. "The Elephant Is a Spear," 115.
 DARLING, EDWARD. Twelve-Year-Olds Can Think Critically, 65.
 DEKIEWIET, C. W. The Meaning of Historical Time, 13.
 DESTLER, CHESTER MCA. The Intolerance of Political Differences in Europe, 247.
 DESTLER, CHESTER MCA. The Intolerance of Political Differences in the United States, 201.
 ENGLISH, W. FRANCIS. Missouri Schools and Missouri's New Constitution, 361.
 GRIM, PAUL R. and DUTTON, WILBUR H. Is Safety Education Obvious and Unstimulating? 263.
 HAINES, MILLICENT. Taking a Poll to Survey School Opinion, 219.
 HAUCK, ARTHUR A. Education and Canadian-United States Relations, 67.
 KERRISON, IRVINE. The Case Against Conscription, 26.
 KIDGER, HORACE. Social Studies Instruction for the Pre-Inductee, 23.
 KOHN, CLYDE F. Thinking Geographically, 252.
 LAMONT, CORLISS. The Schools and American-Soviet Understanding, 63.
 LATHROP, H. O. The Place of Geography in the Social Studies, 209.
 LEAMER, LAURENCE E. The Problem of the Mental Demobilization of the Soldier, 123.
 LEEVY, J. ROY. Teaching Sociology in a Changing World, 310.
 LIDDELL, GLENDA L. Selling Social Studies Via Radio, 222.
 LUCKE, ELMINA R. American Industrial Society: A Core Program, 301.
 MERIDETH, DOROTHY. Secondary School Social Studies in 1945, 345.
 MONTGOMERY, LOLA. Rural School Teaching—A Re-evaluation, 265.
 National Council for the Social Studies Program Twenty-

- Fifth Annual Meeting. Facing the Over-all Tasks in Social Education, 315.
 NOSOFSKY, WILLIAM. The Law Against Discrimination and the Social Studies, 364.
 PERRIGO, LYNN I. The Social Studies Tomorrow, 313.
 PHILLIPS, CHARLES E. Study of the United States in Canadian Schools, 71.
 PIEPER, EUNICE JEAN. Pan-American Highway: A Fifth Grade Project, 173.
 PINGREY, JENNIE L. Introducing a Unit on Labor, 305.
 PRICE, ETHEL E. Democratic Living: A School Experience, 60.
 QUILLEN, I. JAMES. The Role of the Social Studies Teacher in the Postwar World, 9.
 RENNER, GEORGE T. Man and Soils in America, 152.
 REX, MILLICENT B. The Use of the Quotation Question in History, 215.
 RUTAN, EDWARD J. Exploring the Language of Social Studies, 213.
 SCHUELKE, HERBERT T. Soviet Russia: A Curriculum Unit, 113.
 SILVER, ABBA HILLEL. The Moral and Psychological Basis of a Lasting Peace, 55.
 STALEY, EUGENE. Economic Welfare in the Postwar World, 197.
 STEVENS, BEATRICE. An International Club, 259.
 STEVENS, GRACE ADAMS. Foods for the World from the Americas, 20.
 STRAYER, JOSEPH R. What Is Medieval History? 295.
 TAYLOR, EUGENE J. The AAF Convalescent Training Program as Social Education, 125.
 TOBEY, DONALD R. The Army Separation Center, 255.
 WALLACE, ELIZABETH. The Pennsylvania Federation of Junior Historians, 161.
 WEIER, LEONA. Study of Latin America in High School History Courses, 307.
 WEINTRAUB, RUTH G. and TOUGH, ROSALIND. The Veteran Comes Back to Hometown, 32.
 WILLIAMS, JAY and ABRAHAM, HERBERT J. Evaluating the Course in Problems of Democracy, 167.
 WILLIS, MARGARET. When the Veteran Returns to High School, 299.

II. Editorials

- Hunt, Erling M. The National Council at Cleveland, 5-Canadian-American Education, 53. School History, 149-Waging Peace, 245. International Education, 293.
 Social Education for Veterans. Backgrounds and Issues, Robert H. Reid; G. I. Joe Speaks, Robert LaFollette; A College Administrator Speaks, Marshall R. Beard, 103.
 Van Til, William. The Task of Intercultural Education, 341.

III. Departments

- Notes and News, 35, 80, 128, 176, 225, 267, 317, 368.
 Pamphlets and Government Publications. Leonard B. Irwin, 39, 84, 131, 179, 227, 271, 320, 371.
 Sight and Sound in Social Studies. William H. Hartley, 41, 86, 133, 181, 229, 273, 322, 373.

MESSAGES
TO AMERICAN
SCHOOL TEACHERS

No. 9

Two Citadels of Americanism

MORE THAN A HUNDRED YEARS AGO a school for the academic and military training of youth was started in historic Charleston, South Carolina. It was called the Citadel, because it was to be a fortress for defense against ignorance, and against inability to serve state and nation effectively in time of peril.

In the same city, in 1740, had been opened the first of this country's free schools for Negroes. There, in 1785, was chartered the first municipal college in the United States.

The Citadel, which came to be called the "Pride of the South," long since outgrew its original buildings, and was moved to a larger site on the Ashley River. In 1931, after four years as Chief of Staff of our Army, General Charles P. Summerall became its president.

Since then this important unit of the Palmetto State's education system has won new wreaths for its record. Today, next to West Point, it is the largest military college in the land. Its student body represents nearly every state. Only West Point can boast a higher percentage of graduates in our armed services.

In the years since Pearl Harbor its alumni have distinguished themselves in every combat area. They were with Doolittle over Tokyo; they fought in Africa, Italy, France and Germany, and throughout the Pacific. Nearly 99 per cent of them have served as officers.

"We're mighty proud of them," says Dr. James Haskell Hope, South Carolina's State Superintendent of Education. "We're equally proud of the great numbers of young men and women whose training in our public schools has so helped to make them useful to the land they love. It's a grand tribute to our American system of free education that it has inspired in these and in millions of others a working devotion to our democracy.

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"From month to month it offers mental meals that are nourishing, refreshing and stimulating. I should like to see it in the hands of every High School student, and of many in the upper elementary grades. It so reflects the human values of our free ways as to give youth a lively sense of the benefits and responsibilities of good citizenship."

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MESSAGES
TO AMERICAN
SCHOOL TEACHERS

No. 10

"Living Backgrounds" for Class Discussion

NEARLY SIXTY-FIVE YEARS AGO, in the busy little river town of Prescott, Wisconsin, seven high school boys pioneered, for those parts, in a way of keeping pace with happenings in history and American government. At the suggestion of their teacher, each of them subscribed for the weekly edition of the New York Tribune, and for three years they used it as supplemental study material.

One of these boys, John Callahan, himself took to teaching, and now is Wisconsin's State Superintendent of Public Instruction, an office he has held for twenty-five years. In the long stretch since his graduation he never has forgotten what that New York newspaper meant to him and his classmates.

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MESSAGES
TO AMERICAN
SCHOOL TEACHERS

No. 11

From the Eagle's Nest

GEORGE GREY BARNARD, the American sculptor, used always to speak of the fertile prairies and river-lands of the Middle West as "the eagle's nest of our democracy." There Abraham Lincoln was born and raised, and there became the great champion of the kind of freedom that has brought us to world leadership.

He knew the value of education because he was denied its advantages. All told he figured that between his eighth and fifteenth birthdays he had twelve months of schooling, and that primitive. And he, as few others, knew the value of reading, for his thoughtful perusal of a few good books laid the foundation for his supreme service in saving our form of government.

"One of the first, and certainly one of the most important duties of every school teacher today is the planting of Lincoln's sort of Americanism in the hearts and minds of our youth," says Dr. Vernon L. Nickell, State Superintendent of Public Instruction in Illinois, adopted state of the Great Emancipator. "As guides to the understanding and appreciation of his concept of government of, by and for the people, our teachers—whether in one-room or high schools and colleges—carry a responsibility second to none. Now, in the confusion of war's aftermath, they must sense as never before the need for their leadership in classroom development of good citizenship.

"I feel that the School Edition of The Reader's Digest should be classed among the valuable mediums for aiding this vital task allotted them. It is, in effect, a bridge between textbook information and the actual working-out of our principles and ideals in everyday life. It presents so many phases of our republican form of government in action, and so clearly sets forth the soundest of our social and political ideals that it helps to prepare our youth not only for support of these, but for protecting them against the efforts of subversive groups to take advantage of inevitable postwar confusion."

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